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COL

CHURCH OF THE HOLY TRINITY

Methodist Episcopal Church & Training

of the United States, O.E.

After the service, a social hour will be held in the
What is the purpose of the service? To give the
Teach the people the meaning of the service, the
Great High School of the Church, a great time

High School of the Church

The Clearing House

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Contents

A Factory Job Taught Me 4 Lessons	Thelma L. Cooley	259
After Evaluation—Improvement in 4 Maine High Schools	J. J. Devitt	263
A Professional Aptitude Test for High School	Jacobs and Traxler	266
Opinionnaires Canvass Parents, Pupils, Teachers	R. P. Brimm	269
I Wish I Were Gifted: What to Do for Superior Students	A. W. Howard	271
I'm Old-Fashioned: I Teach <i>History</i>	Stewart Doig	274
The Future of Language Arts: Social Emphasis	Edna Lue Furness	277
Checking Weak Spots in the Job Conference	Margaret E. Andrews	280
Teacher's Mental Health: The Principal of It	Virginia Bailard	283
What Has Become of the Former School Paper Editors?	Don L. Waage	285
DID U? 4 Traits of the Great Teacher	Richard E. Gross	287
Mathemaphobia: Causes and Treatments	Sister Mary Fides Gough, O.P.	290
Follow-Up: New Variety	Raymond J. Young and Woodrow Holman	295
Discipline: Great Minds and Small Minds	Emily Harrison	298
Shall I Supervise a Student Teacher?	Isobel L. Pfeiffer	301
High Heels and Ties: Senior Day Goes Adult	Louise Edna Goeden	305
Is the Junior High School Still Growing?	Francis J. Cavanagh	306

Departments

Tricks of the Trade	265	Events & Opinion	307
Recently They Said:	273	Book Reviews	309
Findings	284	Audio-Visual News	318

CH articles are listed in the Education Index.

CH volumes are available on microfilm.

NOTICE TO WRITERS

We welcome contributions from our readers. In every issue we publish teachers' and administrators' articles reporting improvements, experiments, and successes as achieved in their schools. Many of our readers have accomplished things in classrooms and in school systems that should be known in thousands of other high schools.

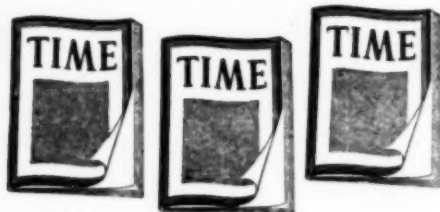
Our preferred length for articles is 1,500 to

2,500 words. We also welcome items reporting good but minor ideas in 50 to 600 words. In addition to fact articles (which need not be dull or prosy) we invite articles of controversy, satire, etc., on secondary-education subjects. Typing should be double-spaced. Keep carbon copy and send us the original.

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THE CLEARING HOUSE

A journal for modern junior and senior high schools

VOL. 28

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No. 5

A FACTORY JOB Taught Me 4 Lessons

By

THELMA L. COOLEY

A GAIN IN November this year the teachers of our city participated in annual B-I-E (Business-Industry-Education) Day activities and were the guests of many local business and industrial firms. Their role was that of pupils as they sought to analyze and understand the reciprocal relationship between business and industry on the one hand, and education on the other.

This is a wise and useful program—one I have always enjoyed and which I shall be glad to participate in for many years to come. But if I lived to do it a hundred times over, I could not learn as much as I learned in the four short weeks I spent last summer on the assembly-line of a nationally known industry.

I had never worked in a factory before. I had had only brief B-I-E glances inside of one—so I had a great deal to learn. I learned four major lessons, all of which are making me a better teacher; and it is chiefly in order to fix these lessons for myself that I write about them.

First let me describe my job. Results of the tests I was given before being hired showed such excellent vision and such a high degree of manual dexterity that I was assigned to an operation in TV tube manufacture requiring the precise and expert welding together of tiny wires and grids in four places. After a few minutes of watch-

ing an experienced welder perform the operation at incredible speed, I was shown how to make the welds. Then I perched myself on a stool, where I sat bent over my welding machine for the rest of the day, futilely trying to imitate the phenomenon taking place on my left.

In five minutes I swiftly lost all pride in my wonderful vision and manual dexterity. After a week of trying I was still getting only fair quality and sub-zero quantity out of my now-crippled fingers, and I had desperately paid out \$6.95 for a foam-rubber chair cushion. At the close of three weeks of superhuman effort (my foreman will never know how hard I tried) I was managing 75—and an occasional 100!—jobs an hour, my delight only slightly dulled by the knowledge that production quotas called for 207. I was already working like a maniac, but if in another month I could just learn to work twice as fast—

I never got the chance. My foreman decided to try me on something easier, to see if by any chance I might start earning my wages before the summer was over. I got a two-weld operation which I rather enjoyed but on which (as with the other one) I could still manage only about one third of production.

Fortunately at the end of a month family circumstances arose which forced me to quit

before becoming permanently "disabled." But not before—as I said—I had learned four lessons.

My first lesson was a more than academic respect for persons. I had a built-in respect for persons before I went to work in this factory, yes. Enough that it hurt and irritated me when my friends frankly expressed shock that I would seek such a job. But actually working with factory people generated in me something far different. Now when I pass a factory at quitting time, it isn't just a swarm of tired, overalled women that I see.

There are Helen and Mildred and Nancy and Ruby. Chris and Marie and Bessie and Rose. LaDonna, Lucy, Christine, Newell—I remember that I liked them and they liked me and I wish I could see them again. Binding together the various strata of culture and manners was a common denominator: human personality. I found hard-working, attractive, intelligent girls and women—enough of them to demonstrate in a practical setting my academic faith in Americans. I hope most teachers over the land know about this strong, safe reservoir of American families who are sending pupils to their classrooms; coming to their Parent-Teacher meetings; working not because it's fun to work in a factory (just ask me) but because the children need braces on their teeth, or shoes, or a bicycle, or because the family needs a TV set or a better car. So I'm glad I learned to know those people with my heart, not just my brain—a brain that sometimes classifies people (and their children?) according to the occupation they have, the clothes they wear, or the grammar they use.

Ah, grammar! Being a teacher of languages, I was naturally interested in what I heard. I learned that the girls did not make errors in the use of language. Rather, they were speaking a foreign language which had established patterns, a grammar, of its own. The double negative, *ain't*, exchanging the past tense and the past participle, saying *them* for *those*, *don't* for *doesn't*,

and dropping all *g's*, occurred with unvarying uniformity. After living for a time in this "community" I found that these things began to sound right to me; and although I did not change my own speech patterns, I began to think in this new language. The culmination came on what later proved to be my last day of work—and I have since been more than grateful for this incident. It came to seem like getting a diploma at the end of the course.

I was standing in my usual state of exhaustion at the end of the aisle, waiting for the dismissal bell to ring, when Rose came by to pick up the last of my work for the day. She looked for my production sheet in order to sign for the work she was taking. I had already thrown it away because Bessie had just been by and recorded my picaresque figures for the last hour.

As she looked, Rose said (may I never forget that beautiful southern inflection), "She done picked up your production sheet?"

Then, without even a second of premeditation, I automatically responded, "I done threw it away."

What does all this teach me? My second lesson: a more than academic respect for the language patterns of my pupils. Of course we must teach correct English. But I would like to see us actually gain our ends rather than continue to defeat ourselves by unsympathetic and unrealistic attack upon the language habits our pupils bring to us.

What impression are formal explanations and nagging reminders likely to make upon a fourteen-year-old boy who has always said and heard, "I done threw it away"? He will not renounce what is right for him in favor of what is right for the teacher. Nor does he have any desire to speak differently from the people around him—right or wrong. It seems to me that his language patterns are most likely to be changed: (1) If he is taught to observe how people in different parts of the country talk; (2) if he identifies and observes the cultural level on which he

is now talking; and (3) if he is helped to find the motivation for changing to a different idiom.

The third lesson I learned was a more than academic approval of efficient school discipline.

I always "understand" when a pupil gets caught behind an obvious eight-ball (flat tire, snowstorm, jammed locker, faulty alarm clock), don't you? But I discovered a little gadget known as a time-clock that has no heart. It wouldn't understand. I discovered that forgetting to ring in one day cost me money, even though I had actually started working fifteen minutes early. I realized that the signs prohibiting smoking and eating outside of given areas meant what they said, and that a gate-pass was necessary—not optional—for entering the plant. I also discovered that work was never okayed on the basis of good intentions. It had to be right. And if you wanted to stay on the job, it had to be right every time. I discovered that you worked hard and fast to "make production" with no time out for loafing, and that it was never "too hot to work."

Conditions were certainly not unreasonable. Employees were well protected by closed-shop union contract. It simply all added up to *earning* a weekly pay check by supplying an employer's needs.

I am by no means convinced that the public schools generally are doing all they should to prepare their pupils for this kind of discipline. Sometimes we think them too young, too tender. We pat them on the back and say "That's fine," when they could have done something ten times better. We accept an excuse for tardiness or a forgotten book or an incomplete assignment without batting an eye. The pupils themselves admit that they learn to judge precisely how much effort is needed to get by, and then they do just that much and no more. As the result of my work experience I can make my discipline more meaningful—and therefore more palatable and more thorough—

EDITOR'S NOTE

Miss Cooley teaches English and Latin in Thomas Carr Howe High School, Indianapolis, Ind. The past summer she had a factory job—and during the time she hung on to it she learned four lessons that she says are making her a better teacher this school year. These lessons concern people, grammar, discipline, and skill. She would like to share what she learned with you.

for those happy-go-lucky foes of learning who give me each day a reason for being.

The fourth lesson I learned was a more than academic respect for the skill, the know-how, which supports our American way of life.

I suppose it will sound silly to say it, but somewhere I picked up the childish and erroneous idea that the products of our factories are made by millions of dull, uninteresting, overalled automatons standing or sitting along miles of assembly lines, punching a hole here and turning a nut there, or flipping a switch now and then while some fabulous machine, designed by some white-collar genius upstairs, did the actual work.

Granted that there are such machines, and granted that there are some automatons, I should think my experience more typical of factory work. Since I have seen the intricate skills—the many highly skilled operations—that go into the manufacture of TV tubes, I have thought of the infinite number of other products common to our lives which also require steady, skillful, swift fingers, keen eyes, creative vision, determination not only to do it faster and faster but better and better. There are the automobiles, airplanes, telephones, clocks, watches, and refrigerators. There are the dams, the railroads, the airports; all our instruments of war—of modern agriculture, of science.

Do we wonder each morning when we go

to the garage whether our ignition system has broken down? When we flip the switch are we surprised to hear the broadcast or see the picture? Are you concerned about your wrist watch more than to wind it, or your telephone more than to answer it when it rings? Instances of our artisan skill can be multiplied over and over. And this is not the skill of the few but of the many; not of machines, but of men. I will not go so far as to say that I would rather make a perfect TV tube than translate a book of the *Aeneid*. But I would be ashamed to imply in any smallest way that the former was a lesser attainment; or to fail to sense anew the responsibilities of the schools in seeing to it that the marvels wrought by our workers in industry are not prostituted to trivial or unworthy uses.

Furthermore, I want my pupils to understand that in the world of industry a chance awaits them to use all of their powers, physically, mentally, creatively. I want them to understand that modern conditions of labor are such that when the whistle blows or the bell rings there will still be a lot of themselves left over—for what? For the other things they have learned to love in school: books, flowers, baseball, home-making, photography, travel, people. I want them to understand that as a teacher I have respect for my craft; and that I also have respect for the many other crafts to which they will give themselves in order that I may live—like an American!

Thank you, Mr. Employment Manager, for letting me learn all this and paying me wages too!



Love Those Civic Clubs!

Civic and service clubs, whether the smallest booster group or the most powerful of internationals, can be the greatest of "crutches" for the hard jumps of school management if the principal really wants to use them intelligently.

Few, indeed, are school-board members with gail enough to say a direct "no" to the president of a booster club with a substantial membership in a community. In the first place it is the worst kind of politics (yes, we still have that ogre in our midst), and in the second place it just isn't the thing to say. Rather, the board member is inclined to give out with a "We'll have to look into that matter, my friend." And if the project is necessary and can be financed, the principal has accomplished his aim without buttonholing a single school official.

Is that easy?

Sometimes yes, sometimes no . . .

But it is true that improvements for your physical plant are frequently possible. Unfortunately, as in all business, it is the wheel that does the squeaking that gets the grease, so the progressive and aggressive principals are frequently found to have achieved their aims first. If you are the timid type of school principal who likes to stay in the schoolhouse and "keep a school," the civic club is your answer.

Many of these clubs (Lions, Rotary, Civitan, and others) make it a point to seek out the school principal and inspect his plant for projects. All good civic workers know that a club is on the rocks when it isn't busy, and the school is one project that can

always stand a little shot in the arm. But if your local civic club, and this includes booster and alumni groups, is working on other charities, it might well behoove you to visit some key men and drop a suggestion that you still have hopes for that sidewalk, that new toilet, or such.

The club will have two approaches on the matter, and it is up to you to suggest the best routine. As these groups are often experts at raising quick money on red-hot little projects of their own, it is often found that all the financing can be done at home. At times, the group may feel like half-financing a project, with the PTA or the school board taking the other half of the burden. Or, in rare instances, you may find that a simple phone call from the club's president will swing the entire deal.

These aren't trade secrets; they're well known, sound procedures. If you aren't working your local civic clubs, you too must remember that it is the noisy wheel. . . .

Nothing makes a teacher or principal more popular in his community than a working agreement with local clubs. When little junior goes home with a tale of how he was manhandled and double-crossed at school, Pop is likely to say, "Just a minute, Junior; I know your principal and he just ain't that kind of a guy. I don't care what you think, Sam just doesn't do things that way so let's hear no more about it."

Love those civic clubs!—HAROLD LAMBERT in *West Virginia School Journal*.

The methods of 4 Maine high schools:

AFTER EVALUATION —IMPROVEMENT!

By
JOSEPH J. DEVITT

DR. QUILL E. COPE, Tennessee Commissioner of Education, points out¹ clearly that the use of the Evaluative Criteria, the secondary-school self-evaluation guide prepared by the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, may fail to develop better community-school relations and may fail to close the gap between theory and practice in the school program.

Our experience in Maine secondary schools seems to indicate that these two weaknesses are not inherent in the instrument itself, but that they may arise from the procedures employed in the study.

It seems obvious that if the school conducts the study entirely behind closed doors, and takes no steps to acquaint the community with the project, there will be little or no public-relations value in the work.

If adequate publicity is given to the study from its inception, and if students and adults are involved in the evaluation wherever appropriate, the community will appreciate the work of its teachers in this voluntary, unpaid project of making a good school a better one. Too, many of the recommendations that result from the study require additional funds to implement them. If the community thoroughly understands the reasons for the recommendations, it becomes much easier to obtain the necessary appropriations.

Students and adults have been used in

varying degrees by the Maine schools which have participated in the program. Where they have been used extensively, the results invariably have been gratifying. Their use on subject-area committees for various reasons may not always be appropriate. However, one school successfully used three students on every committee. Student councils and parent-teacher associations were called upon frequently in many schools for resource persons and for publicizing the purposes of the study. Pupils and lay members of the community may render important service, especially on such committees as school plant, program of studies,

EDITOR'S NOTE

How can the Evaluative Criteria be used in a high school in a way that will avoid the two possible later pitfalls—failure to improve community-school relations and failure to put the recommendations into practice? Mr. Devitt, secondary education supervisor in the State Department of Education, Augusta, Me., tells how four Maine high schools have met these two problems effectively. Concerning the first problem, these schools worked to get adequate publicity for the program, and to bring the community in on it. As for the second problem, Mr. Devitt indicates that it's simply a matter between the faculty and its conscience. If the teachers and the administrators don't put many of the recommendations into practice, nobody else is going to do it for them.

¹ Quill E. Cope, "After Evaluation—How Much Improvement?" *The Clearing House*, April 1953, pp. 451-53.

pupil activity program, library services, and whatever other sections seem appropriate to the local school faculties.

One school began the self-evaluation program with a dinner for parents, teachers, town officials, and consultants, at which the purposes and procedures of the study were explained. Townspeople were kept informed of progress throughout the study. At the conclusion of the project, copies of the report of the visiting committee were attractively bound and distributed in the community. Public recognition of the value of the study resulted in the expenditure of thousands of dollars during the summer vacation for improvements in the plant facilities. During the week preceding the opening of school in September the teachers met for three days to begin to plan the implementation of the recommendations that concerned their activities.

A valuable device employed by another school was to consult all of the students concerning their opinions of their educational needs. Classes were suspended for one day. The juniors and seniors came to school for the morning session and the sophomores for the afternoon. The students present were divided among the teachers, and to each group was assigned one or two major needs as they are listed in Section C of the Evaluative Criteria. The students discussed these needs thoroughly, giving their opinions of the validity of the needs, the degree of responsibility of the school in meeting them, the extent to which the school was actually meeting them, and then made suggestions

for meeting more effectively the accepted needs. Reporters were assigned to each group. The group reports were coordinated, mimeographed, and used by the teachers as a guide in their evaluations.

The value of this procedure lies not only in the direct contributions of the pupils, but also in the fine public relations gained through student interpretation in the community of the work of their teachers.

The second weakness of the Evaluative Criteria program—the failure to close the gap between theory and practice—seems to be one that must be remedied through the cooperative efforts of teachers and administrators in each participating school. It is difficult to justify the volume of painstaking and soul-searching work that must be undertaken by a faculty in this evaluation program unless there is some planned provision for carrying out at least a large proportion of the recommendations that are made during the study.

During the school year 1951-1952, four Maine secondary schools carried out the evaluation project under the auspices of the State Department of Education. One year later, in May of 1953, we conducted a follow-up study to discover the extent to which the gap between educational theory and practice had been closed in these schools during the year since the conclusion of the evaluation.

Copies of the recommendations made by the committees in each school in 1952 were submitted to teachers who had served on the original committees. Each teacher was

Opinions of the teachers in four Maine secondary schools concerning the status in May 1953 of the recommendations made by Evaluative Criteria committees in self-evaluation studies during the school year 1951-1952.

Total number of recommendations made in the four schools: 791

Total number judged to be invalid	23	percentage	2.91
Total number on which action has been postponed	338	percentage	42.73
Total number in process of being completed	322	percentage	40.71
Total number that have been carried out	108	percentage	13.65

requested to indicate the present status of each recommendation through a choice of four statements: the recommendation had since been judged to be invalid, action on it for some reason had been postponed, it was in process of being completed, or it had already been carried out.

A summary of the reports of the four schools appears in the accompanying box.

We conclude from this evidence that it

is possible through the use of Evaluative Criteria to close appreciably the gap between educational theory and practice. We recommend the instrument, not merely as a device for revealing strengths and weaknesses, but rather as a means whereby students, teachers, community organizations, and interested townspeople may unite in a concerted effort to help a good school become a better one.



* * *Tricks of the Trade* * *

By TED GORDON

DISCUSSION CATALYSTS—At the beginning of each period of discussion, even before the youngsters come into the room, I put up on the board a slogan, or a phrase, or even a word which acts as a kind of catalyst to the group. Thus, in preparing to tackle the ethical problems of Arrowsmith's choice of career, I put up the equation "THE ALMIGHTY \$ vs. ?" This always seems to crystallize thought and direct comment without undue wear and tear on the teacher. In thinking of the matter of Brutus' duel of loyalties, I use the phrase "THE HIGHER LOYALTY—WHAT?" It attracts attention from the outset; it helps start the ball rolling and keeps it in motion.—*R. B. Goodman*, Erasmus Hall High School, Brooklyn, N.Y.



EDITOR'S NOTE: *Readers are invited to submit aids and devices which may be of help to others. Please try to limit contributions to 50 words or fewer—the briefer the better. Original ideas are preferred; if an item is not original, be sure to give your source. This publication reserves all rights to material submitted, and no items will be returned. Address contributions to THE CLEARING HOUSE. Dr. Gordon teaches in East Los Angeles Junior College, Los Angeles, Cal.*

TEACHING USE OF REFERENCE MATERIALS—Before I begin my library unit each fall I spend enough time in the library to get specific references, page, volume, title, etc., for each pupil in a class to have several references to find, probably one from the *World Almanac*, *Index to Poetry*, *Who's Who*, *Readers' Guide*, etc. As each child finds what his reference calls for, he copies it, has me check it, receives another one, until he has found one of each kind. By using this method you eliminate the constant use of encyclopedias and no other reference book.—*Fay T. Senyard*, Pine Bluff, Ark.

TEACHERS' ENGLISH ERRORS—Reputable research shows that teachers make many English errors while teaching their classes. A supervisor cannot correct this by saying to a teacher: "Your English is weak; you should watch it." Instead, he must make a tabulation of the actual errors and their frequency; then he can say, "You made twenty errors during the hour. All but four of these were disagreement of the number of a pronoun with its antecedent; you should watch that particular construction."—*J. R. Shannon*, San Diego State College, San Diego, Cal.

Accounting Orientation Test pioneers:

A Professional Aptitude Test *for* HIGH SCHOOL

By

ROBERT JACOBS and ARTHUR E. TRAXLER

THE PAST quarter of a century has witnessed the development of programs of measurement and appraisal in several of the professions. These programs have been designed to assist with the guidance of young men and women contemplating professional careers and to attract to particular professions those individuals having top qualifications for the work to be performed.

Generally speaking, the testing programs of the various professions are geared for use at the college level and have not been particularly useful in the high-school guidance program. The recent appearance of a professional aptitude test designed for use with high-school students marks a new departure in this particular area.

The new instrument is an Accounting Orientation Test for high-school students.¹ This test has been developed as part of a testing program introduced some six years ago by the American Institute of Accountants. The experimental work on this program was begun in 1944 and research has been carried on continuously since that time. As with the other professional testing programs, the instruments and techniques which were developed were for use mainly at the college level. Also, in this program, the tests have been used by a considerable number of accounting employers as an aid to selection and upgrading of employees.

Since the beginning of the program, a total of more than 200,000 tests has

been given in approximately 400 colleges throughout the United States, and several thousand tests have been used by accounting employers. The program has been directed by a special committee of the American Institute of Accountants, at first the Committee on Selection of Personnel, and more recently the Committee on Accounting Personnel. The program has been handled by a project office located at the Educational Records Bureau.

The instruments developed for use in schools and colleges of business include a test of general business ability called the Orientation Test and two levels of Achievement Tests, one measuring knowledge of accounting after one year of study, the second measuring knowledge of accounting principles and procedures after four years of study. The College Accounting Testing Program also includes the appraisal of interests. The Strong Vocational Interest Blank was adapted for this purpose after extensive experimentation had established an identifying pattern of vocational interests for practicing accountants.

As the program in the colleges gained recognition, high-school counselors and principals began to inquire concerning possible uses of parts of the program in secondary-school guidance work. The values of setting the background for vocational choice at an earlier time than college entrance were recognized by the committee directing this professional testing program. Accordingly, the project staff was authorized to investigate the possibility of developing

¹ Available from the Project Office, Committee on Accounting Personnel, 21 Audubon Avenue, New York 32, N. Y.

suitable tests which might appropriately precede testing at the college level.

Two separate projects were undertaken. One was designed to experiment with testing materials which might be developed into an Orientation Test for secondary-school pupils. The second was designed to investigate the usefulness of the Kuder Preference Records—Vocational and Personal—in identifying specific preference patterns which might be found among accountants. The latter research will be reported elsewhere. The first project, the experimental work with lower-level Orientation Test materials, has reached completion. The result is two forms of a high-school-level Orientation Test, which were available for use in high schools in the fall of 1953.

The Accounting Orientation Test, High-School Level, is designed to provide teachers and counselors in secondary schools with information concerning the pupil's potentialities for success in the field of accounting or the general field of business. Each form of the test consists of three parts: (1) Vocabulary, (2) Arithmetic Reasoning, and (3) Accounting Problems.

The Vocabulary section of each form consists of 30 multiple-choice items, mostly business terms. The arithmetic part consists of 15 business-arithmetic problems. The accounting-problems section is made up of 24 items which are somewhat novel. The questions in each form are based on some five or six structured accounting situations, such as depreciation calculation, cost accounting, accruals, division of profits, and so on. Although knowledge of bookkeeping procedures would probably increase the pupil's score on this section of the test, such study of bookkeeping is not a requirement for answering the questions. Part III is designed to measure the pupil's ability to handle accounting materials without previous training in such work.

Sample test items are as follows:

Part I, Vocabulary—*Solvent*: (1) Very profitable, (2) financially insecure, (3) expanding slowly, (4) at a standstill, (5) able to pay all debts.

Part II, Arithmetic Reasoning. The interest rate on a note for \$240 is 6% per annum. How much interest would be due if the note were paid at the end of three months? (1) \$14.00, (2) \$7.20, (3) \$3.60, (4) \$4.80, (5) answer not given.

Part III, Accounting Problems. *Depreciation Calculation*. The gradual loss of value of buildings, machinery, trucks, and so forth caused by aging and by normal use is called depreciation expense. The annual depreciation is estimated by dividing the cost of the item minus its expected scrap value by its estimated life in years. A certain truck costing \$4,200 is estimated to have a life of eight years and a scrap value at the end of that time of \$200. What is the annual depreciation expense of this truck? (1) \$500, (2) \$525, (3) \$800.

The test is prepared with machine-scorable answer sheets and requires forty minutes of working time. It can be administered to individuals or to groups and requires no special skill to give or to score. Provisional norms for high-school seniors are available to assist with interpretation of results. More specialized norms are to be developed as the test is used more extensively.

The experimental work with these tests has yielded indications of test reliability and some limited evidence of validity. A Spearman-Brown reliability coefficient of .91 was obtained for the final form of the test, based on a sample of 200 high-school seniors. A study comparing scores on experi-

EDITOR'S NOTE

Until recently, professional aptitude tests—such as those for engineering, medicine, teaching, and law—have been prepared for the college level, but not for use with high-school students. A pioneer test of this nature for the high-school field is the recently issued Accounting Orientation Test. The significance and the promise of this development are discussed by Dr. Jacobs, assistant director, and Dr. Traxler, executive director, of the Educational Records Bureau, New York, N. Y.

mental forms of the test with scores on the college level Orientation Test taken by the same group of college freshmen indicated that the high-school and college tests have a great deal in common (coefficients ranged from .79 to .88).

Other studies have shown that the college-level Orientation Test predicts success in accounting courses somewhat better than do tests of general mental ability. Hence, the fairly high correlations with the college-level test may be considered as a favorable sign with respect to validity, although the inference is an indirect one. Further investigation of the validity of the instrument will be planned as the test is used.

It is believed that this test will prove to be a valuable supplement to the guidance instruments now available for use near the end of the secondary school. There is a possibility that it may turn out to be useful not only for prediction of success in accounting study and practice but also for the broader field of business in general. Just as some colleges now require that the college-level Orientation Test be administered, not to beginning accounting students alone, but to all students entering the school of business, so high schools may find it important to have all their students intending to enter business courses in college take it. This supposition may be looked into experimentally after the test has been used two or three years.

A more important point is that the high-school Orientation Test represents a kind of contribution to secondary-school measurement and guidance that other professional groups might emulate.

The tests used in guidance at the secondary-school level may be divided into two broad classes—those used in the all-school, or all-pupil, program, and those employed on an individual or small-group basis with pupils whose interests and abilities seem to be concentrated in particular areas.

The need for tests in the first broad class is largely met by the regular test publishers. New and improved tests for all-school use

make their appearance frequently.

There is, on the other hand, a dearth of measurement instruments designed for use with individuals in predicting success in particular areas. An important reason for the lack of such instruments is that they are not financially profitable. Test publishers do issue limited-use tests occasionally, as a contribution to education and guidance, but they can, of course, publish few such tests on which they may anticipate a financial loss. They are forced by considerations of survival to concentrate most of their effort upon tests for which a considerable volume of use may be expected.

For the most part, the construction and publication of tests for supplementary use in a guidance program must either be given financial support from philanthropic sources or it must come about through the initiative of professional groups who see the advantage of early selection and guidance of promising people toward their profession.²

Various professional groups have for years given active support to testing programs. Examples are the Medical Aptitude Testing Program, sponsored by the American Medical Association, the Measurement and Guidance Project in Engineering Education, initiated some years ago by the engineering societies, the National Teacher Examination, and the Law Aptitude Tests. But these testing programs, while having great value, are for college students and graduates, and they are controlled programs.

The high-school accounting Orientation Test represents one of the first attempts by a professional society to prepare a secondary-school guidance instrument and then to give it to the high schools at approximately the cost of printing. It is believed that the outlook for intelligent vocational guidance at the high-school level will be improved if other professional groups see fit to undertake similar projects for their own fields.

²Free occupational information on careers in public accounting may be obtained by writing to the Educational Director, American Institute of Accountants, 270 Madison Avenue, New York 16, N. Y.

OPINIONNAIRES *canvass*

Parents, Pupils, Teachers

By

R. P. BRIMM

EVERY SCHOOL has its share of applause and boos from both the field and the side lines, and sometimes it is difficult to determine just where the spectators and the team stand on various questions. It is very easy to get an impression of full acceptance of a program from a small group of staunch supporters and it is also easy to interpret the vociferous complaints of a vocal minority to mean that everyone thinks the school program is at an all-time low.

Opinions gathered from limited sources are a dangerous foundation for support of a program of public relations or for use in evaluating a school program. A school policy may have wide support without anyone realizing it or, on the other hand, a policy may not meet with approval of many persons concerned. An unsound "sensing" of public opinion could easily lead a public-relations program off on a tangent in the wrong direction and give an unsound evaluation to a particular phase of the program.

For a number of years Teachers College High School in Cedar Falls, Ia., has been using "Opinionnaires" to determine the soundness of its program. These opinionnaires have served to discover the feelings of teachers, pupils, and parents on specific phases of the school program. The results have given a very accurate picture of what persons think and also have served as a basis for evaluation of the school as well as a foundation for a public-relations program.

The generally accepted axiom that the pupil is the best public-relations agent of the school may be true in most cases, but the influence of the teacher or parent is

equally important in many instances. One critical remark made by a teacher at a social gathering can do as much damage to a school as a dozen pupils going home with their complaints. A single parent can do considerable damage with a telephone or over a bridge table.

Often the opinions of children do not match those of parents and teachers. This was quite evident in responses made to opinionnaires on a new marking system used in our school. Although only a bare majority of pupils liked the system, parents and teachers were found to be very much in favor of it. In this case it was apparent that in many instances the opinions of the pupils did not reflect the feelings of their parents.

It would be impossible to get an evaluation of an entire school program through a questionnaire. If the questions were too general then the results would be meaningless. On the other hand, if an extremely long list of specific questions were used it would be a chore for anyone to answer them. The result would be a very incom-

EDITOR'S NOTE

For some years Teachers College High School, Cedar Falls, Ia., has used opinionnaires to get the reactions of parents, students, and faculty to various phases of its program, actual or planned. As a result, says Mr. Brimm, principal of the school, "we know wherein lies our support." He offers to send to CLEARING HOUSE readers a bulletin which contains samples of selected opinionnaires and a description of how they were used.

plete return and questions answered without too much thought. We have found that a few important questions asked at various times under different conditions bring the best results.

One opinionnaire for parents on home study was filled out at PTA homeroom meeting. The coverage was not complete as the attendance at such meetings is never 100 per cent, but we did get a systematic tabulation of opinions from a large group of parents. At another time a questionnaire was sent home with the report card of each pupil. This form asked for parent evaluation on a number of newer practices in the school, such as our camping program, junior-high exploratory program, marking system and counseling system.

The return on this questionnaire was about 65 per cent. Although we would like to have had a higher percentage returned, at least every single parent was given an opportunity to express an opinion. The results of this questionnaire were used for evaluation of the program and for public-relations purposes. A "Bulletin for Parents" was issued at the end of the next marking period, with a tabulation of the results and steps which were being taken to improve the various phases of the program.

Two types of pupil opinionnaires were used during the school year of 1952-53. One was used by individual teachers to get reactions of the pupils to their teaching methods and another was used to get opinions of the pupils on various phases of their school program. The one used by the individual teachers was considered the confidential property of the teachers concerned and the results were not made public, but information from the other opinionnaire was made available to the school newspaper.

Teachers have also had an opportunity to express themselves through the opinion-

naire. One used this year asked each teacher to indicate certain phases of the program which should be studied and revised. From the results of this survey it was possible to isolate a number of practices with which many of the teachers were dissatisfied. Faculty committees then worked on the "trouble areas" and revisions were made through faculty action.

In using the opinionnaire there are a few principles which we have found it advisable to follow. Some of these are listed here:

1. Ask specific questions. General questions result in general answers which are difficult to interpret.
2. Keep the number of items at a minimum. Long questionnaires result in few returns.
3. Select items of importance. People do not like to waste time on unimportant issues.
4. Make limited use of questionnaires during one school year on the same group of people. Vary the type and the conditions under which they are used.
5. Make use of the results. If people give their opinions, use them and show evidence that they are used.
6. True opinions are easier to get if the person is asked not to sign his name to the questionnaire.
7. Leave space for comments. These are sometimes very valuable.
8. Remember that the results are opinions. They do not give facts but they do indicate trouble areas. Isolated criticisms should not be taken too seriously but should be considered.

We have found that parents, pupils, and teachers are usually glad to have an opportunity for expressing their opinions. Through use of the opinionnaire we have been able to do a better job in evaluating our program and at the same time have improved our public relations. At times suppositions have been verified and at other times we have found that we had completely misjudged the support of a given program. In any case, we are in a better position to act when we know wherein lies our support.



I always know all of the [seventh-grade] boys' names by the end of the first week, even though my schedule includes around 200 children. It is not that I have such a wonderful memory; it is a matter of self-preservation.—MAXYNE KELLY in *The Oklahoma Teacher*.

I WISH I *were* GIFTED

Here are things that every teacher can do
for gifted students who turn up in his classes

By ALVIN W. HOWARD

I WISH I WERE "gifted." More to the point, I have often wished that I knew what to do with that small percentage of students who are gifted and whose irritating presence in my classes mocks my teaching certificate.

For four years I have taught average lessons for the average student and complacently achieved an average success. And for four years I have secretly hoped that I could find some sort of special courses dealing with gifted children or locate someone who could gently lead me by the hand out of my uninspired mediocrity.

Studies indicate that at least half of the gifted fail to go to college. I have no quarrel with the boy who finds a reasonable happiness as a department-store clerk—unless he might have become the doctor who could discover the cure for cancer.

I don't believe that many of us have been contributing to the maximum extent of our abilities to the maximum welfare of the group. It seems about time that we do something about these superior abilities that should be saving us from our own follies.

We may not always recognize the gifted child—chances are we won't. He is not necessarily going to make a high score on an intelligence test; his talents may lie with such things as art or music. He may not get the highest grades in the class; in fact, in arithmetic he may show a high percentage of errors.

If you haven't been keeping him interested he will probably be a troublemaker, and a first-class one, too. Chances are he will be in good physical shape, if not ath-

letically superior. Actually the only way to be sure that this little nuisance is one of the upper crust—as far as abilities go—is by continued observation by the child's parents and the teacher, plus reliable tests. But you have or will get some like that. The law of averages will deal you from one to ten per cent of "greatly endowed" to gifted students. In the average secondary school the teacher will encounter, to their mutual disadvantages, from one to eight a year.

Now what are you going to do with these little Jaschas or Alberts besides sit on your fat conscience and pray that June will get here before the crack-up so that you can push them onto someone else?

A lot of smart people have tried a lot of different things and some of the results may surprise us.

You don't need special classes. If you're in a small school in a small town, as I am, you couldn't have special classes anyway. There is even considerable argument as to whether special classes are the answer. Never having seen one, I can't say, but if I sit around with my ninth grade until I get one, we may all be living in caves and playing the hit parade with skin drums.

Then there's the old standby, acceleration. We've all seen grade skippers. Sometimes it works and sometimes the poor child finds himself in a social atmosphere in which, because of his size and social immaturity, he is a misfit regarded with suspicion and mistrust, which in turn mean trouble. You know, "He's the smartest kid in the room but he's full of the devil." Why shouldn't he be? He's bored sick and he doesn't want to discuss dating problems

with these boys and girls. He wants to play marbles with boys his own size. He can glibly define "ideals" and "tolerance" but that doesn't mean he's going to live them.

The third method which has been used with gifted children is enrichment. Now there's a basket word which can mean anything or nothing. It's too bad that some nice, sensible words have been so abused that we shudder and frantically start conjugating Latin verbs whenever we hear some phrases, or engage in competitive hyperbole explaining them to one another at PTA.

Because most gifted children are good readers and read a great deal there has been a tendency to give them some advanced subject matter and some advanced books to accompany it. The teacher labels it enrichment and retires with a pleased smirk to assist the remainder of the class to locate page 47 in the reader.

But basically all that is meant by enrichment is to supplement the regular instruction with more diversified materials and activities. When you prepare a lesson, teach it with a "fringe area" and encourage the more advanced to carry the material further. The superior child has a high degree of inventiveness and originality but he frequently needs guidance. Expand the range of interest and experience in those areas within the program which permit full development of creative abilities: dramatics, debating, science clubs, literature clubs,

creative writing—particularly for a specific situation, such as art, music.

Work out some sensible field trips, don't travel just for the holiday. Demonstrations are useful; encourage hobbies and the display of such extracurricular activities.

For example, you are teaching an eighth- or ninth-grade English unit. You want the class to learn and use some punctuation, some rules of grammar, and some forms for letter writing, and to develop some creative thought. There are many things you can do besides opening the text.

The students can write job applications; they can make a personal folder of references which includes personal background and work experiences, fictitious or real. Let your gifted students interview some personnel men, some city officials, the city librarian. You can have skits wherein someone applies for a job. You can have debates concerning various phases of your activity, over the value of English, if nothing else. You can study words and word origins. You can work up topics or situations for compositions, knowing that the average student can achieve a measure of success and encouraging the superior students to enlarge upon the compositions and really let themselves go. You can help them to find books which will satisfy their requirements in the library.

Last winter I mentioned to my class that the 808.3 section in our city library abounded with collections of short stories on nearly every conceivable topic from dogs to gambling. I was amazed at the interest shown. Books were brought to school and we read several stories and wrote a few ourselves.

The experiences for the gifted can be the same as for the rest of the class, but let's have more of them and require a higher level of achievement. Just because these boys and girls are smart doesn't mean that they can't be lazy—and be smarter at that, too. They can be just as lazy as the rest of us. Ours is a society of workers and this

EDITOR'S NOTE

*On the average, says Mr. Howard, a secondary-school teacher will have several "greatly endowed" or gifted students in his classes every year. The problem is how to provide them with the kind of attention they need, without disrupting the education of the other pupils. The author, who teaches in Fairhaven Junior High School, Bel-
lingham, Wash., tells what he has been doing for the gifted students that come his way.*

society wants more and better workers to improve its lot.

There's nothing new here, and that's the answer. You don't need something new or special. You have it already. A successful classroom teacher can do a great deal without any special training. Words scare us and special methods plus unique systems of

teaching the gifted are prime shibboleths.

Lack of special methods and special training may soothe your conscience but it won't save your neck. An approach which is matter-of-fact and well organized will help some superior child develop his abilities and may go a long way toward paying off when the time comes.

♦ *Recently They Said:*

"A Clear Mandate"

It seems to us that teachers now have a clear mandate to go ahead and teach about the UN without fear of embarrassment or criticism. The report of President Eisenhower's special investigating committee (the Salamon report) should be given wide publicity. The American people have always shown themselves willing to look at the facts. Because of this, we feel sure that UNESCO is on its way to far broader recognition than ever before as the vehicle for influencing the minds of men toward a genuine and lasting peace.—W. HENRY GALBRETH, Editor, and RUTH H. WARREN, Associate Editor, in *Midland Schools* (Iowa state education journal).

The "Dirty" Novel

Another problem of the teacher of literature lies in the book which presents earthy and perhaps sordid experience—a common genre, particularly in contemporary writing. How to judge the "dirty" book is a kind of discrimination high-school students need to be taught.

True censorship of the really dirty book will arise only from the individual conscience of the informed student, the development of which is the direct responsibility of the teacher of literature. The mature reader responds neither positively nor negatively to the "dirty" book merely because it is dirty. He asks the question, "Are the sordid elements used to further the purpose of the book, to illuminate the theme, to develop character?"

A unit on war experience in literature in which some students read Tom Hegggen's *Mr. Roberts* brought progress toward this kind of response. The book contains a great deal of obscene language and earthy experience, but it is all relevant to what the book is about. It is not hard for our more mature students to see this, although the main purpose of the unit may not be to develop ability to judge the "dirty" book.

The topical unit opens fascinating possibilities for revitalized teaching of literature. But we need to be wary of its pitfalls and exploit its potentialities to the fullest.—DWIGHT L. BURTON in *The English Journal*.

Changed Courses Held Pupils

An analysis was recently made of the curriculum of a four-year high school of excellent standing which requires 80 credits (16 Carnegie units) for a diploma.

It was found that, without taking any unusual combination of subjects, it was possible for a pupil to earn the 80 credits by passing only 13 major subjects, and that of these 13 majors, only two (American history and problems of democracy) had been given in their present form in that school as recently as ten years ago! The remaining majors were either so-called "life-adjustment" courses or were new courses in English, languages, mathematics, and science introduced to meet the capacity or ambition of the poor learner.

The school's holding power has materially increased over the ten-year period, and many boys and girls have been retained through the four years who would certainly have dropped out had it not been for the modified curriculum available to them.

—EDITORIAL in *The Social Studies*.

Dearth of Followers

American education has come to the strange position where everyone is being trained for leadership. The fact is ignored that few can be leaders, that most must be followers. It is conceivable that the time could come when leaders would vie with one another to find followers, who just happened to exist because they did not receive the full benefits of public education. Perhaps the only solution to this peculiar situation is to reevaluate the goals of education.—WALTER B. BARRE in *The Educational Forum*.

I'm Old-Fashioned: I TEACH HISTORY

By
STEWART DOIG

AS THE NEW school year began I faced the annual problem of doing battle with the old filing cabinet.

I had determined to do a thorough job this year. My plan was completely to reorganize the accumulation of newspaper clippings, old editorials, pictures, magazine articles, and sundry other scraps of teaching aids which I had inherited or collected during my brief career as a secondary-school history teacher. The plan, of course, called for a careful perusal, which would result in the majority of the outdated materials being dispatched to the waste basket.

Almost the first item to demand my consideration was a booklet on the subject of the teaching of social studies and history.¹ I thumbed quickly through the pages and had just about determined to file it for future reference when a phrase seemed to leap from the page at me. I read the phrase again, then the entire sentence. My fall inventory had come to an end.

"It is not the business of any public school teacher to teach history," the sentence read. "It is his business only to teach pupils. . . ."

There it was, then. It was in print. Looking at the date of publication, I discovered that it had been in print for some time. Oh, I had heard educators say as much before. I had heard that threadbare cliché about teaching children and not subject matter. But here it was in print, and somehow it meant more because it was aimed not at

teaching or teachers in general, but at me. It said, "Mr. Doig, we do not teach history; we teach children."

That did it! I've had enough. I'm ready to fight back! Here it is, then. Here is the way I teach and the way I believe in teaching. Here is the way I shall continue to teach as long as anyone will hire me.

I teach *history*. I teach history to teenagers because I believe they should know some of it. I make (some, I find, are not easily "motivated" or "challenged"), I make them memorize dates—1776, 1812, 1849, 1861 and a good many others—because I believe historical perspective is as essential to the citizens of a democracy as an awareness of their personal legacies.

I make them memorize some political and economic history because if these things are forgotten, the republic will become a nation with amnesia, and because I believe that what we are is the sum total of what our people have been for over three centuries. Our children must learn the *facts* of the past. They must use these facts to psychoanalyze a nation, and in this way find first what we are in order to determine what we must become.

I make them memorize—yes *memorize*—"We hold these truths to be self evident," and "We the people of the United States," and, "With malice toward none and charity for all," because I believe some things have been said that need remembering.

We study a few battles in detail, because the way men fight tells something about what they are fighting for. I make them defend in debate propositions with which they are not sympathetic, because I believe

¹Charles C. Peters, *Teaching High School History and Social Studies for Citizenship Training: The Miami Experiment in Democratic Action-Centered Education*. Coral Gables, Fla.: The University of Miami, 1948.

that the gathering of facts to support an argument will never be old fashioned.

And, oh yes, I make them do homework, because I believe that by the time our children reach secondary school they should be aware that learning is often plain hard work; and because I want my classroom to be a place for experimentation-in ideas, not just a reading room.

If I am any judge of what progressive education means, most of its adherents would be willing to accept my aims as well as many, if not all, of my methods. Where, then, has the schism occurred? It seems to me that the differences between the progressives and us "old timers" are more a matter of emphasis than of basic method. But the matter of emphasis is as important as two philosophies of education can make it.

Dr. Peters feels that "the number of teachers . . . who have fundamentally reconstructed their philosophies of education in terms of getting pupils practiced in the acts of living rather than getting them loaded up with bodies of information . . ." are all too few. The student's "mastery of history," he believes, should be measured by the following criteria:

1. His command of the facts is correct; he does not jumble his facts nor slur over them.
2. He sees clearly the historical movements underlying the facts; historical developments are for him more than just aggregates of facts.
3. He brings together his ideas and organizes them from many sources.
4. He can interpret in terms of the history he is studying contemporary events such as those in literature and science and particularly in business and politics; he can see present-day conditions in the light of how they emerged from historical roots.
5. He has good ideas about "where we should go from here" in order to improve the institutions of our society, the development of which he has studied in history.
6. When he looks in many books to find his materials, he has a good sense of what sources are promising and what books are authoritative.
7. He makes his reports and his other comments clearly and convincingly.

Here is the crux of the problem. A straw

man has been utterly demolished. We are told that it is bad education to teach history to children, but good education to teach children history. This would be humorous if the debate went no further than the classrooms of teachers colleges, but it does not end there. Eager progressives in the social-studies field have launched an all-out attack on the teaching of facts. They are teaching children, but what they are teaching the children, even they are not sure. They have forgotten Dr. Peters' excellently defined "scholarly mastery of history," and remembered only that they are not to teach history.

They go a step further. Having decided to teach children, they conclude that the children must learn only that which they enjoy learning. The theorists, to be sure, never meant it this way. The idea was to make more palatable those things that need learning, but progressives have interpreted this to mean that students must learn only those things which they find palatable.

I am an old-fashioned teacher. I am convinced that we have gone so far overboard on the "how" that we have forgotten the "what." We are skipping over a great cultural heritage because we are afraid our students will be bored. We are so busy showing our students through the local

EDITOR'S NOTE

Mr. Doig calls himself a "conservative" (in quotation marks). He staunchly maintains that it is his business—and yours, too, if you teach the same subject—to teach history to children, and not just to teach children some history. He says that for some years he has noticed a growing inclination of educators to misinterpret the methods proposed by the "progressive school." He thinks it's time to ask the question, "How child-centered can you get and still teach the child what he needs to know?" And now Mr. Doig, who teaches in South Orange, N. J., Junior High School, has the floor.

printing plant and having them interview the police chief that we are forgetting to show them how printing began and how modern police methods were developed over the centuries.

Recently I told a teacher from an industrial area that my classes in United States history had been debating nullification.

"That's wonderful," he said. "It must be a great thing to be able to do that sort of lesson, but my kids would be bored stiff. We talk mostly about jet planes."

Nonsense! I found that the students I taught in a factory town were as ready as these in South Orange to meet the challenge of a great idea. Sure, let's talk about jet planes. But for a whole school year?

Another teacher tells me that he feels his history lesson is a failure unless he can wind up with an immediate tie-in with current events. The idea is a popular one, but how dogmatic can you get? And how foolish!

We study the westward movement. We talk of wagon trails and land runs; we talk of Indians and cattle men. We talk of Sam Houston and of the Donner Party, but need we tie in every one of these stories with a current one? Is not the whole picture worth something? Do we not come away from a study of the American West with a better understanding of what Americans are? My

friend must frequently find that his tie-ins are rather loosely bound.

What about citizenship? Are our students having *experiences* which develop this most important of all qualities? Are we "getting pupils practiced in the acts of living"?

My students learn to get to their feet and argue a point with supporting evidence (mere facts again). They learn to hear out the other fellow and to respect his right to be heard. They learn that regardless of their religious or ethnic backgrounds, their people have at one time or another in history been a persecuted minority, and that bigotry pays no dividends. They learn that being a student involves responsibilities to themselves and to others, and that the acceptance of responsibility does pay dividends. They learn that the world is filled with interesting things, and that in order to do the things you enjoy doing, you must also do some things which you do not find so enjoyable.

Yes, I guess I'm an old-fashioned teacher. I teach history, and I don't put any big red letters on the package labeling it "citizenship education" or "progressive." It's just the same old stuff, but my pupils seem to like it; and if you don't mind, next week while you take your class to see the town's new sewage disposal plant, my class will be debating Jefferson and Hamilton.



The Golden Rule—in Ten Religions

Buddhism: Hurt not others with that which pains yourself.

Christianity: All things whatsoever ye would that men should do to you, do ye even so to them; for this is the law and the prophets.

Confucianism: Is there any one maxim which ought to be acted upon throughout one's whole life? Surely the maxim of living-kindness is such. Do not unto others what you would not they should do unto you.

Hebraism: What is hurtful to yourself, do not to your fellow-man. That is the whole of the Torah and the remainder is but commentary. Go learn it.

Hinduism: That is the sum of duty; do naught to others which if done to thee, would cause thee pain.

Islam: No one of you is a believer until he loves for his Islam brother what he loves for himself.

Jainism: In happiness and suffering, in joy and grief, we should therefore refrain from inflicting upon others such injury as would appear undesirable to us if inflicted upon ourselves.

Sikhism: As thou deemest thyself so deem others. Then shalt thou become a partner in heaven.

Taoism: Regard your neighbor's gain as your own gain; and regard your neighbor's loss as your loss.

Zoroasterianism: That nature only is good when it shall not do unto another whatever is not good for its own self.—Compiled by ROBERT FRANK in *The Phoenix* (Publication of the Phoenix, Ariz., Public Schools).

The Future of More social emphasis in the high schools LANGUAGE ARTS

By
EDNA LUE FURNESS

"Human 'fitness to survive' means the ability to talk and write and listen and read in ways that increase the chances for you and fellow members of your species to survive together."—Hayakawa, *Language in Thought and Action*

WAY BACK in the good old days of 1890, the high-school student of English and foreign languages was trained in grammar, which supposedly possessed a magical power to transfer formal abilities into expressional skills.¹ A high-school student was also trained in those classics prescribed by the College Entrance Examination Board.

Though the pieces of literature changed from year to year, the school requirements at the turn of the century included for intensive study *Silas Marner*, *The Ancient Mariner*, the *Vicar of Wakefield*, Milton's minor poems, Burke's *Speech on Conciliation With the Colonies*, Cicero's orations, and Vergil's *Aeneid*.

Scattered articles prior to 1917 voiced the rebellion of individual classroom teachers of English against the stultifying effect and restrictions of literary analysis and grammar grinding. In 1917 a joint committee was formed from the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association and from the National Council of Teachers of English under the leadership of James Fleming Hosc. This group questioned the literary traditions, the college English entrance examinations, the validity of grammar as a mental discipline, and the age at which children should be taught grammar. They pro-

posed such objectives as reading for meaning, the ability to find needed information, and the ability to express oneself with clarity and persuasiveness.

In the Twenties a voice was raised against some of the sterile and ineffective teaching material in our school courses and our English textbooks.² By the Thirties classroom teachers had boldly defied the assumption that the only good book was an old book. As a result, the colleges modified requirements and allowed teachers to select within broad limits literature that students and teachers liked.

Foreign-language study, too, was investigated. In 1896, the Modern Language Association, at the request of the National Education Association, appointed a Committee of Twelve to study and report on various aspects of modern-language teaching. Between 1921 and 1923 the Classical Investigation was sponsored.

We have hastily glanced over the pages of the history of education for the past sixty years and have selected several items which have to do with teaching the humanities in our schools. It is obvious that teachers of English and foreign languages, aided and abetted by college professors of the humanities and pedagogy, have made consistent efforts to adjust instruction to the times. In spite of all these efforts, however, we have in actual practice the survival of ancient methods, Procrustean points of view, obsolete and ineffective materials of instruction.

As evidence of our own leaders' aware-

¹ A revision of a paper presented at the Conference on American Studies, University of Wyoming, August 5, 1953.

² Sterling Andrus Leonard, *The Doctrine of Correctness in English Usage, 1700-1800* (University of Wisconsin Studies in Language and Literature, No. 25). Madison: University of Wisconsin, 1929, p. 248.

ness of inadequacies of and possibilities for instruction in the area of English and foreign languages, we may refer to the revived interest of the Modern Language Association in pedagogy, and to several papers read at the General Meeting, held in Boston in December 1952. Noticeable is a pessimistic note that the world is facing catastrophe largely because the humanities have not kept pace with developments in the sciences, the social sciences, and education. Obvious also is the note that the study of the humanities can provide for our people a deeper understanding of the essential values of western civilization, and possibly save the world from impending disaster.

Addressing himself to scholars who have withdrawn to the high Olympus of pure scholarship, William Riley Parker, professor of English literature at New York University and executive secretary of the Modern Language Association, urges "rigorous research into motives and purposes." Mr. Parker calls upon language and literature teachers to relate language to the social sciences, and to make full use of the intellectual disciplines of linguistics, sociology, and psychology, for the sake of our national security.²

Concern has been registered³ because the study of the ancient languages has virtually disappeared from the high school, and because the modern foreign languages are being burned alive with them in "a common, unmarked grave." It has been charged that professional educators are responsible for eliminating these scholarly disciplines. Now the question arises: Is the retreat from the classics and is the slow death of the modern languages due altogether to the inability of these intellectual disciplines to compete with the efforts of modern pedagogy?

² William Riley Parker, "What Next?" *PMLA*, 68: 43-48, March 1953. Reprinted in *Hispania*, 36:197-200, May 1953.

³ Arthur E. Bestor, Jr., "'Life Adjustment' Education: A Critique." *Bulletin of the American Association of University Professors*, 38:437, Autumn 1952.

We may refer to Hayward Keniston, one of our greatest Hispanists. Also a speaker at the Modern Language Association meeting in December, Dean Keniston states that teachers of English are just as vitally concerned in this reexamination of our goals as are those whose professional concern is with French, German, or Russian. He states further:

The revival of learning in 15th-century Italy gripped the minds of men because it gave them new ideals of human dignity, new standards of morality, new models of behavior. But down the years, and particularly in this 20th century, the humanist has steadily moved away from man and his problems into a sterile neo-scholasticism, where scholars speak only to scholars, and nobody speaks to God—or to man. You and I, as members of this Association, must bear our share of responsibility for this deepening chasm between scholarship and life.⁴

These admissions were made more than five years after the appearance of a restatement of what good education is and what good teaching is in terms of life, in the light of great issues today, intellectual and social. The program concerning secondary education in general, and the programs of subject-matter areas were outlined by those who have had broad experience in the secondary school. The philosophy and the program have gained wide acceptance by high-school teachers and high-school administrators of our nation.

The term, life-adjustment education, is being bandied about as though it were a wholly new idea—involving new methods, new materials. In reality life adjustment has been the goal of education since the proverbial year one. The Greek word *pedagogy* meant "guiding the youth," and the Latin word *educatio* was a translation of the Greek word. When an Athenian youth asked Socrates to name the secret of happiness, Socrates replied, "Know thyself." And the corollary, which Socrates demonstrated in his teaching, is "Know your students."

⁴ Hayward Keniston, "We Accept Our Responsibility for Professional Leadership." *PMLA*, 68:23, March 1953. Reprinted in *Hispania*, 36:182-186, May 1953.

Given these two factors, a student who knows himself and a teacher who knows his pupils, you have the basis for life-adjustment education.⁶

The life-adjustment philosophy suggests a shift from emphasis upon the individual to stress upon certain social values of language. Hence, in terms of an educational philosophy and program designed to serve society, the word *language* or *communication* serves notice that the course aims and content are functional.

The aims of life adjustment in English teaching⁷ and foreign language teaching do not differ appreciably from those that have been cherished by all good language teachers of all time. The new program endorses the traditional subject-matter values. However, it places a different emphasis on them. The normal learner in the secondary school is offered the intellectual and aesthetic delights attainable in the English and foreign-language courses. He reads, understands, and appreciates *Macbeth* or *Julius Caesar*. He learns the value of a knowledge of the rules of grammar. However, the grammar he learns is considered a description of the operation of the language, a means to an end, not an end in itself. As a matter of fact, the new emphasis in grammar teaching, which is revivifying the study of English and foreign-language teaching, owes more to sociologists and psychologists than to language teachers for its inception. The life-adjustment philosophy is aware of the truth of Dr. Peddiwell's dictum, "Language is made by the needs of men and grammar is made by professors."

One learns to read by reading, to write by writing. The letter the student writes is one which may bring him or her informa-

EDITOR'S NOTE

Dr. Furness sees in the present trends of language-arts teaching in the secondary schools a future in keeping with the life-adjustment movement—more emphasis on social values, the interests and lifetime requirements of the pupils, and their cultural needs. The author is associate professor of Language Education, University of Wyoming at Laramie.

tion needed for a social-studies paper. The essay he composes may be written on a scientific experiment, or it may be an article for the school's newspaper. Life adjustment recognizes that every person needs the skills and tools of literacy and communication; that along with the three R's every person needs full control of his faculties of imagination and creativity. Consequently, the life-adjustment program makes provision for poetry, short story and play writing, and also for play acting. Likewise, in the foreign-language class the student learns the language by means of related purposeful activities, *in* and *through* use of the language, through content that is socially and culturally significant.⁸

In conclusion, education for life adjustment recognizes the Socratic principle, know thyself and know your students. This education considers language a form of social behavior; it makes a plea for teaching language *in* and *through* use of language, in terms of the needs of the individual learner and the age in which he lives, moves, and finds meaning. The life-adjustment philosophy breaks with the idea that to be educated one must develop a superficial acquaintance with certain designated classics of literature. The philosophy of education for adjustment in this life parts company with the concept that English or any language is static and remains unchanged.

⁶Charles A. Tonsor, "Some Higher Phases of Life Adjustment," *The Clearing House*, 27:93, October 1952. See also Donald H. McIntosh, "Launching a Life Adjustment Program," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, 25:415, November 1950.

⁷For a statement on English in this movement, see Harl R. Douglass, *Education for Life Adjustment*. New York: Ronald Press, 1950, pp. 88-109.

⁸For a statement on foreign languages in this movement, see Harl R. Douglass, *Secondary Education for Life Adjustment of American Youth*. New York: Ronald Press, 1952, pp. 347-55.

Minneapolis gets 4 points of view:

Checking Weak Spots in the JOB CONFERENCE

By MARGARET E. ANDREWS

THERE ARE career conferences and career conferences—and each year we read many “how to do it” articles in professional periodicals. Seldom, though, do we find evaluations reported.

Although Minneapolis has had senior job conferences on a city-wide basis for ten years and has had some evaluation each year, this year a more thorough evaluation of the conferences has been attempted than in the past. Not only have the counselors and the coordinators who attend each conference been asked to evaluate them, but the modern-problem teachers who prepared the students, and the students themselves, have been asked to give their evaluations. The number of students actually reached by the conferences was also considered in the evaluation.

All of these evaluations seemed to indicate there was real value in the conferences and they should be continued. As a whole, conference leaders and students alike were well prepared, although there were individual cases where better preparation was needed.

Conference Plan

For many years Minneapolis, like other cities, brought speakers in many fields out to the schools to talk to students. Some schools had formal career days and others had speakers at various times during the spring. There are perhaps three major difficulties in this plan which the present city-wide senior job conference plan reduces.

First, when each school arranges its own

conferences, there are frequently not enough students interested in many areas to make it worthwhile to have a conference and, therefore, many students are not served. Second, since conferences were held in the schools students could not see workers at work or working conditions. They received only a “word picture” of what a leader discussed. Third, the burden on the time of both the conference leaders and the school counselors is very great when each school duplicates the efforts of others and when many leaders are called on by several schools. Furthermore, there was no plan for preparing speakers or giving them uniform instructions for their jobs as conference leaders.

In Minneapolis, therefore, a city-wide plan was established, and the culminating activity in the two- or three-week career unit which is taught in all modern-problems classes was attendance at a senior job conference. As a result of their study, students from each school indicated the fields they would like to enter. Counselors in each school tallied these choices and sent the list in to the Central Office, where a tally was made for the entire city. Job conferences were then arranged for every job in which even ten students were interested.

Several sections were scheduled when necessary, so that not more than thirty students attended any one conference. All conference leaders were prominent men who were active in the jobs they discussed. No representatives of schools were used. On the basis of the previous year's evaluations, conference leaders were given both written and

oral instructions on the conferences they were to conduct.

Conference Attendance

In June 1953 there were 3,397 students graduated from the Minneapolis high schools. Of this number 2,292 indicated they wished to attend a senior job conference, and 2,108 students, or about 62 per cent of the total class, actually attended. There was a wide range in the per cents of seniors attending from the various schools, however—from 91 per cent in one school to 29 per cent in another. Each school was asked to analyze the preparation of the students for the conferences and the ways in which they were motivated to attend. Certainly this analysis will be of help this year when the conferences will again try to reach all students.

Modern-Problems Teachers' Evaluations

Evaluations were received from a majority of modern-problems teachers, and indicated the late spring schedule and the one-week plan for the conferences was good. Most of the modern-problems teachers felt students seemed more interested than in past years and most of them reported an attempt to relate the conferences to their classwork. Many modern-problems teachers indicated, however, that students still complained about some speakers talking too much of their own businesses, conducting tours with an insufficient number of leaders, and trying to cover too broad a field. These specific evaluations will be available this year when we talk to speakers and arrange details of the conferences.

Counselors' and Coordinators' Evaluations

The counselors or coordinators who attended each conference indicated in their evaluation that they believed, on the whole, both students and conference leaders were better prepared than in past years. Many of them reiterated the students' feeling that there was need for better preparation by

some conference leaders and that many of the tours were not effective. Some were too long, some seemed unrelated to the job under discussion, some were planned so the talk was given during the tour and it was too noisy to hear.

In other cases, the program attempted to cover too much ground and, therefore, became very broad and general and not particularly helpful. Counselors and coordinators indicated that students frequently left early, and often seemed unprepared to ask questions. They also remarked about the inappropriate dress of both boys and girls at the conferences. These are all areas to which increased attention will be given this year when the conferences are planned.

Students' Evaluations

In June 1953, for the first time, formal student evaluations were made of the conferences in three representative schools. This sample survey included a total of 449 students. To facilitate tallying responses a questionnaire was prepared.

On the basis of this survey, 299 students, or two-thirds of the group, indicated their career choices remained the same after the conferences; 90 students reported that they had been changed; and 60 students reported they were more undecided than ever.

EDITOR'S NOTE

Miss Andrews says that reports on how school systems conduct their career conferences are plentiful—but that you seldom see a report on the evaluation of such a project. The past year, she participated, as consultant in business education and placement of the Minneapolis, Minn., Public Schools, in the most thorough evaluation of the Senior Job Conferences that this school system has ever undertaken. There were separate evaluations by four groups: the modern-problems teachers; the counselors and coordinators; the students who participated; and the conference leaders.

Of the 299 students whose career choices remained unchanged, there were 144 students who indicated the conferences merely confirmed facts they had already known, and there were 155 students who indicated they learned new facts which confirmed their career choices.

There were 150 students, or one-third of the group, who reported their career choices were changed or that they were more undecided than ever as a result of the conferences. Of this number, 67 students reported they learned new facts which made their choices seem unwise; for 29 students the conferences changed their understanding of job requirements; 27 students indicated they learned of related opportunities which seemed more attractive.

There were 56 students of those reporting changed career plans who said they have no choice at all at present; 46 students who said they have now chosen a job in an unrelated field; 22 students who have changed to a related job on a higher level; and 11 students who have changed to a related job on a lower level. Certainly the group with no choices at all was in need of more counseling during the remaining weeks of school—and the entire group needed more information in order to verify their new choices.

As a final evaluation, students were asked how the conferences could be made more effective. As one modern-problems teacher pointed out, these suggestions must be carefully interpreted. He said that, for example, a considerable number of students suggested they should have been better prepared in class. When he tried to get them to indicate what they meant or what additional help they would have liked, they were unable to make any suggestions. The same vagueness, he felt, would be true of their suggestions

that the conference leaders should have been better prepared.

However, it was possibly significant that 120 students indicated conference leaders should give more facts; 115 students indicated there needed to be a better follow-up after the conferences; and 70 students indicated they needed better preparation in class for the conferences. These suggestions took on added meaning when the many individual comments written in by students seemed to substantiate, in their own words, these same suggestions.

Two suggestions frequently made by students which should be taken into account next year are: Conference leaders should be more specific about training requirements, particularly in schools other than the University of Minnesota. Conference leaders should do a better job of describing "a day in the life of" the worker they discussed.

Conference Leaders' Evaluations

There is one other source of evaluation which should not be overlooked—and that is the evaluation of the conference leaders themselves. Although this was an informal evaluation, many counselors and coordinators who attended the conferences reported how exceedingly pleased the leaders were with the high level of interest, and the excellent behavior of the students. Many conference leaders were particularly pleased with the groups which stayed on to ask additional questions.

It would seem, therefore, that all of those affected by the conferences felt they were valuable. There is in the foregoing evaluations, however, frank mention of areas in which more planning must be done and in which better preparation must be made next year if the conferences are to continue to grow and to be of value to students.



In looking over a stack of last spring's high-school yearbooks we found 17 which began with a FOREWARD. And many and many a handbook is similarly introduced. Sounds like a military order for a charge! Editors, the designation is FOREWORD.—Editorial in *School Activities*.

Teacher's Mental Health: The PRINCIPAL of It

By VIRGINIA BAILARD

NOT LONG AGO I ran into an old friend of mine who had been in the teaching business for some fifteen years. I had watched her with some concern over a period of time because something seemed to have soured her on her job.

Her attitude toward the children didn't seem to be what it had been previously, and almost every time I had talked to her I had had the impression that she was a most unhappy person. This time, when I met her, I greeted her with the usual, "Hi, how is it going?" Her reply nearly floored me.

"How is it going? It's wonderful! I've been wanting to tell you about my situation this year. I've been transferred, you know, to another building and, honestly, I feel as if I were in a totally new world!"

"Well," I replied, "Let me in on this. Sounds exciting!"

"It is exciting. I'm just a new woman, I tell you. Just listen to the life I lead at school now as compared with what I've had the past ten years.

"This morning, for instance, when I walked into the office to get the morning bulletin, there was Mr. Arcand, our principal. He gave me a big smile and said, 'Say, Tommy Wiley's mother is certainly a fan of yours. She thinks you have taught Tommy more than anyone else ever has. I've been meaning to tell you that several other parents have been singing your praises too. I'm certainly pleased with your work, Miss Paulsen!'

"That's just a sample of the kind of thing he does. And, he's that way with everyone. He never misses a chance to pass along the good things he hears about us. Anything that he sees us do that has any merit at all

brings us a note or a word of commendation and, furthermore, a copy of it goes to the superintendent. It gives us such a lift that we all want to work harder.

"Then, another thing—he's so easy to get to and to talk to and he gives us so much support that we feel free to go to him with new ideas and to ask his advice and help with them. He always encourages us to try out our ideas, if they seemed good to him, and praises us if they work out well. I swear he's only looking for the good things that we do.

"And—you ought to see how he handles the new teachers. In the first place, he does his best to give them a placement at the grade level or in the subject matter where they feel the most comfortable, and he doesn't give them lots of extra duties to do the first year. Somehow, too, he makes all of us older teachers feel we have a real responsibility to help these new teachers in any way we can and to relieve them of pressures whenever possible. They are even

EDITOR'S NOTE

Any combination among dozens of factors may get a teacher down (or "affect his mental health," if you prefer). But in some cases, as Miss Bailard points out, the cause is simply a principal who isn't the kind of administrator that a certain kind of teacher needs. And don't accuse us of euphemism—we're just laying down a broad principle. You will see how this works out in the episode of a friend of Miss Bailard, who is supervisor of counseling and psychological services in the Long Beach, Cal., Public Schools.

given the most desirable rooms when it is possible. I can't help noticing the difference in these new teachers' attitudes toward their work from that of other new teachers I have observed in the building where I worked before."

"He sounds pretty ideal. Doesn't he ever get out of sorts and say anything bad about the work you are doing?" I inquired.

"Well, once in awhile he's displeased with things, but he is always so gentle in the way he handles it that we never feel devastated when he gets through talking to us. As a matter of fact, I'm not doing as many bad things as I did in that other situation I was in. I just feel so free of all those frustrations I had that it's as if I have been released to work at my highest level. I know I wasn't before."

"The morale is pretty good, then,

throughout the school, is it?" I inquired.

"Oh, yes, it's wonderful. You see, we all have a lot to say in the planning of our program and the establishing of policies. As a matter of fact, he often asks our advice. We have a definite feeling that we are an important part of the school. We belong. We just feel so secure and happy that we're all giving with the best we have. We're all growing. I know we are!"

What a change had taken place in this woman! She is no exception to the average teacher in her way of responding to good or bad administration. Administrators must surely realize how much the good mental health of their teachers depends on humane, sound, democratic administrative practices and how much in turn the children's mental health is affected.

* * Findings * *

HOMEROOM TEACHERS: "The use of the homeroom for certain guidance services has resulted in many disappointments and problems," state David B. McCorkle and J. David O'Dea in *Personnel and Guidance Journal*. Recently they made a study of this matter from the homeroom teachers' point of view in 268 secondary schools in 43 states—schools recommended by their state education departments as having exceptional or creditable homeroom programs. Even among these selected schools, evidences of inadequate administrative policies and lack of careful planning by homeroom teachers were abundant.

Some 74% of the teachers said that they had nothing to say about whether they were assigned to a homeroom, and only 19% said that they had had a say on this. Only 26% of the teachers reported having any direct or special training for homeroom

work, while 74% said that they needed special training. Most of those who thought no special training was necessary had homerooms with short periods, devoted exclusively to routine administrative details.

The chief problems of the homeroom teachers were as follows: Not enough time, 48%; lack of interest by pupils, 29%; lack of over-all program, 27%; lack of materials for pupils, 25%; too many clubs and activities for pupils, 25%; interruptions—pupils called to office, 23%; and lack of materials for the homeroom teacher, 19%.

PER PUPIL COSTS: Expenditures per pupil in the schools of New York State rose from an average of \$185 in 1940 to \$387 in 1952—an increase of 109%, says *Public Education Research Bulletin* of the New York State Teachers Association. In city schools the expenditure per pupil increased only 98% during the period, while in village schools it rose 124% and in supervisory-district schools the increase was 137%.

The greatest increase in per-pupil expenditures took place in transportation and other auxiliary services (249%). The next largest increase was in instructional expenses other than teachers' salaries (196%). The next-to-lowest increase, as you could be sure, was in teachers' salaries (101%).

—25—

EDITOR'S NOTE: Good, bad, indifferent or important, there is a great amount of counting studies and other research going on in the field of education. We think readers will be interested in brief, unqualified summaries of some main points in some of the findings. Lack of space prohibits much explanation of methods used, degree of accuracy or conclusiveness, and sometimes even the scope of the study.

A school-paper survey:

What Has Become of the FORMER EDITORS?

By DON LESTER WAAGE

DID YOU EVER wonder what has happened to the "ancient and early" editors of the newspaper on which you are adviser or staff member, or which you are reading? We did! Last year as a summertime project the journalism class took on a number of research projects about former editors, the school, superintendents, building costs, teachers' salaries, and a host of other topics to complete over the summer months.

Now the results are coming in.

Results of the surveys have been wonderfully exhilarating. A survey locating former editors of *Tech*, the high-school newspaper, made by Marlys Johnson, feature staff, has proved invaluable as a public-relations vehicle and has given support for journalism in the community and school.

In making the survey of former editors of the newspaper, it was necessary to go back through all of the paper files to the year 1918, when the newspaper began, and then to write each editor. Probably the most difficult part of the project was the involved correspondence and the locating of names. Out of the 35 editors who were mailed questionnaires, 27 replied. One former editor had died.

The most amazing revelation of the survey was the accomplishment and distinctions of each former editor. Every one, from the four "young ladies who became housewives and mothers" to the executive vice-president of one of the nation's leading book clubs, had distinguished himself in his chosen field.

All respondents answered the question, "Did journalism help you in what you are

now doing?" with a highly emphatic "yes." The head of a leading university psychology department wrote, "My high-school journalism developed an ease of expression and ability to put in words the results of my studies."

A vice-president in charge of advertising and public relations for one of our leading insurance companies wrote that high-school editorship inspired him to go into the field in college and later in professional life.

The writer of three books and a former Guggenheim Foundation fellow, who is credited with the first editorship of the Technical High School newspaper, wrote, "the art of presenting matters in a persuasive way is of constant use and importance to anybody in business, civic, club, or church life."

A minister adds his tributes to journalism, and a well-known doctor who edited the newspaper says that articles in and editorship of a medical magazine were a result of his training in journalism. He adds, "My most worthwhile course in high school was journalism."

Professionally, journalism as a course,

EDITOR'S NOTE

A journalism class at Technical High School, St. Cloud, Minn., made a survey of the former editors of the school's newspaper. Mr. Waage, publications director of the school, reports the results—"an amazing revelation of the . . . accomplishments and distinctions of each former editor."

with editorship of the school paper as a result of the course, were highly profitable to the individuals who have held that assignment in the high school over the past 35 years. One young lady, now a working newspaperwoman on one of the nation's leading dailies and holder of six awards for feature writing, says, "My high-school journalism and work on the paper helped me determine to become a writer."

Only five of the respondents to the survey reported that they were in no way connected with journalism today, but they insist that the training was valuable anyway. All others are in some capacity still performing work that is closely allied to the profession of journalism, or they are actually engaged in the field.

However, our course is not designed to prepare a student for entry into the field of writing, but merely to equip him for intelligent readership and consumption of the news, to give him the basic skills of intelli-

gent, understandable writing, and to encourage creative writing and an appreciation of the press, radio, and other media of communication.

Radio announcers, public-relations directors, doctors, lawyers, executives, copy writers, newsmen, ministers, housewives, clerical workers—all can benefit from the study of journalism.

One former editor, a graduate nurse at the University of Chicago, has published a dietetic booklet for hospital use. This publication resulted from her study of dietetics, but her only professional preparation for the writing was a high-school course in journalism.

There are many intangibles, but some conclusions from such a survey can be made, and if you are interested in finding out what happened to your "olde editors," try one. It is fun and worth while—and it is extremely interesting.



Youth Is Always Young

By JACOB C. SOLOVAY

How shall I measure years—by weakened arches?
 Pieces of chalk worn down right to the board?
 Endless arrays of marks that I have scored
 In little squares? By clanging fire-drill marches?
 Or shall I count the lesson plans in number,
 Notebook on notebook in a climbing stack;
 Gallons of ink consumed, both red and black;
 Pupils awakened from their classroom slumber?

Age is an aching joint, a harassed look,
 Contempt for winter, eyes for April greens;
 A drafty room that grows, at three, much colder.
 Age is affection for a volumed nook;
 Heartache that youth is always in its teens,
 While one perceptibly grows daily older.

D I D U ?

4 Traits of the Great Teacher

By RICHARD E. GROSS

BEFORE ENTERING the field of trial and combat, our intern teachers often seek from us a list of those characteristics which mark the successful teacher.

Experienced instructors know that these qualities equal much more than knowledge of subject and a bag of teaching tricks. Upon many occasions the master teacher has been carefully delineated and we can refer our students to these detailed descriptions for guidance in building their own educational personalities. There is no doubt that personality is the one major factor in any instructor's success or failure. Careful studies have verified our own observation and experiences as pupils and teachers, and all serve to remind us of this prime fact.

Personality has been defined in many ways; as used here it is comprised of all the varying, past and present forces in our lives and traits in ourselves which serve to condition the manner in which others react to us. Therefore, it is something an individual diffuses in all of his contacts and appearances. It's the way we walk and talk, the way we give and take, the way we work and play; in some cases it is a complex, intangible combination; in others, it includes characteristics rather tangible. Fortunately, many aspects of personality can be modified and improved if a person has been helped to attain a realistic view of his own lacks and is willing to persevere in striving for betterment.

While recognizing the basic import of personality in teaching, it is most unfortunate that the large majority of professional education courses seem to offer little to improve personality. Few of the textbooks for these courses, although replete with

suggestions for building units or maintaining discipline, give sufficient attention to this central force in human relations. And all really good teaching situations rest upon this satisfactory interplay of personalities called human relationships. Teachers at all levels need to give more attention to personality factors and means to better group relations.

Within the all-encompassing aura of teacher personality, is there any formula by which a teacher, veteran or neophyte, can evaluate his own effectiveness? I always suggest to student teachers that they look critically at their own performance in terms of the question, "Did U?," and its four keystones of great teaching. America needs not merely good teachers but great teachers. All such master teachers demonstrate the possession of these four characteristics. With proper preparation we can have many more really able mentors.

The first "D" stands for *dynamic*. Where is the great teacher who does not reflect his dedicated belief in the utmost importance of his endeavor? Such teachers stimulate mental activity by the movement of their minds as well as their bodies. Although the great teacher is seldom one who sits immobile behind his desk (nor do his students), he propels his students by the color, purposefulness, and clever humor of his questions, statements, and assignments.

Some refer to this dynamism by the term *dramatic*, but not necessarily in the sense of just having the teacher put on a show or be the whole act himself. All teaching situations have their moments that ask teacher and class to forget themselves. Let the teacher be Socrates, Henry the Navigator,

EDITOR'S NOTE

In his "DID U?" formula, Mr. Gross, assistant professor of social-studies education in the School of Education, Florida State University at Tallahassee, deals with "four keystones of great teaching." He says that these four personality traits are emphasized in the character of the master teacher. If there are any CLEARING HOUSE readers who do not aspire to be master teachers, the author would say that even they will need to develop these traits as much as they can. They should at least get near enough to touch the mantle of greatness.

or Bryan; let the class members argue with Debs or Reuther, experiment with Pasteur or Edison, and discuss with Erasmus or Dickens. These are the times when teaching is more surely an art than a science, and rightly so, for there are certainly those occasions when we legitimately reach our goals via the senses and our emotions.

Closely related to the first "D" in "Did U?" is the "I"—*ingenious*. Where is the great teacher who has not regularly used the techniques and methods which make most class periods rise above the humdrum and the proverbial rut, where students look forward to attendance, for each lesson gives promise of being a new adventure, a fertile experience? Such instructors are able to improvise, to meet each situation, because they perceive the need to plan and be prepared for all possible classroom developments.

While the first mark of an ingenious teacher is the practice of pre-planning, the second is insight. Here is revealed the essential skill of making each student feel that his contribution counts. Such teachers are able to find educational implications in almost any situation, remark, or pupil query. These teachers also recognize the unity of learning and do what they can to cooperate with teachers in other rooms and of other subjects, as well as to interrelate knowledge and ideas from different disciplines within

their own units. It is surprising how often teachers at all levels seem to forget the common goals which they seek and which may best be attained in concert with other instructors.

The ingenious teacher is also marked by his control over a variety of methods. In traditional situations, with the assign-study-recite routine, the instructor's knowledge of methods is much less important than his ability to discipline the school's reluctant rebels. Today, however, more and more teachers, using broad-field or correlated units which contain individualized assignments and a wealth of group activities and projects, recognize the importance of the use of a wide variety of teaching techniques. The great teacher today needs to have a larger command of such methods than the able instructor of yesteryear because he has increased duties and responsibilities.

The second "D" in "Did U?," as the reader has probably already surmised, relates to *democratic*. Where is the great American teacher who is not democratic in his beliefs and in his mien? The democratic teacher knows how to be a leader, is able to retain direction of the class, yet can delegate responsibility. Cognizant of the basic values of the American way, he practices these in his own life and plans his classes to provide experiences which will help pupils to respect one another, recognize the utility of cooperative effort, critical reasoning, freedom under law, and the other democratic attributes.

Especially important for teachers in a democracy is the ability to help students attain competency in problem solving. Here students, involved in the study of problems real to them, are gaining the prime means by which we as a people have achieved our present cultural and national status. Teachers in schools for too long have failed to provide the opportunities for the frank consideration of persistent issues, for the development of personal goals and personal evaluation on the part of the pupils, for

teacher-pupil and individual pupil planning, and for student action in community life—all of which are necessary if the schools are to provide a functional apprenticeship in citizenship education.

The "U" in "Did U?" reminds us of the import of *understanding*. While certain aspects of understanding have already been touched upon in relation to the other three factors in teaching mastery, this serves to underscore the basic role of knowledge in the preparation of teachers. Where is the truly great teacher who does not have broad interests and deep insight based upon a wealth of information? Such understanding rests upon its own four-square foundation.

First, the teacher must have an adequate conception of just how learning takes place; he must realize how this is in turn conditioned by factors in the growth and development of individuals. For all of this he needs to know his pupils intimately.

Second, his understanding must extend into the community—its history, customs, ideals, social arrangements, power groupings, and avenues of communication. He must have the sociological facts, not only to preplan a fitting school program but, again, to help complete his understanding of the individual students, their problems, their possibilities, and their liabilities.

In the third place, the teacher must have a command of content. He uses this subject matter as the means for learning; it is the vehicle providing the facts which the pupils find, select, interpret, use, and judge in problem solving. The teacher must have an adequate grasp of the ramifications and interrelations of subject areas. Pupils hold little respect for the teacher who is weak in the field he is supposed to be teaching; they have no respect for the instructor who

is lacking and who tries in various ways—from changing the subject to using committees—to cover up his inadequacies.

Fourth, the teacher must not only know how best to approach and teach a given lesson, problem, or unit, and this has also been discussed earlier, but he needs to know where the answers can be found, what materials are available, and how they can be most effectively employed. Again, for the modern teacher, understanding has been broadened to cover much more than was necessary in the past.

Here we have not outlined the impossible. Admittedly in too many college programs, both general education and professional, we are failing to meet a number of these demands. At the same time, a number of these factors will not be fully grasped by the prospective teacher until he becomes involved in his practice teaching out in the field on the firing line. Unfortunately, present liberal-arts and teacher-training programs often do not allow the time in a closely packed four-year schedule for thorough grounding in all aspects of "Did U?"

Realistically, it must suffice for us upon many occasions merely to give a brief demonstration or point out superficially the problems and the implications of *dynamism, ingenuity, democracy, and understanding* to the serious student. This is even true in some instances in postgraduate work and in-service education. Happily, master teachers always remain students and all education that counts is what occurs within the individual and by the grace of that individual's will. Therefore, we may have done our best when we have equipped the individual with the attitudes and the means by which he can educate himself to become a great teacher.



This discussion deals with problems and not necessarily with solutions. Like you, I suppose, I can readily discuss school problems. It is arriving at proper solutions that causes me difficulty.—RALPH STORTS in *Ohio Schools*.

Why failures in mathematics?

MATHEMAPHOBIA:

Causes and Treatments

By

SISTER MARY FIDES GOUGH, O.P.

IT IS AN axiom of life that to correct problems, whatever their nature, we must first determine the causes of these problems. For more than twenty-five years I have been teaching mathematics in one capacity or another in a field ranging from sixth-grade arithmetic through high school and junior college classes.

One of my major concerns during these years has been to find the cause of so many failures in mathematics classes. After much consideration, the conviction came—and it has been gathering momentum for years—that mathemaphobia, if I may be permitted a Winchellism, is a major cause of such failures.

Mathemaphobia needs no defining. The term is self-definitive. The prevalence of the disease, however, does call for a concerted effort to educate the public against its insidious attacks. Why not a foundation like the heart and cancer foundations to study the causes and cure of mathemaphobia? Is the mental balance and stability of students of less importance than their physical well-being?

Instead, however, of wishful thinking about mythical foundations, let us take a look at what we already know about this disease which is almost as common as the common cold. Its symptoms are hard to recognize when the disease is in its incipient stages. In fact, it has usually reached the chronic stage long before the pupil-patient recognizes it or the teacher-physician even suspects its presence. All too often the dis-

ease has proved fatal before its presence is detected.

It may be that Sophomore Susie has brought home a failing mark in geometry before anyone even dreams that the mathemaphobia germ has been undermining her self-confidence for months or even years. Dad may threaten; Mother may reason; and the teacher may encourage her to do better work—all knowing that her mental capacity is far above the quality of the work she is doing.

What would probably be more to the point would be getting back to the source of Susie's fear of and dislike for the subject. Then we might expect a cure to be effected. Perhaps Susie's phobia dates back to an unpleasant experience like that of the girl in my class. This student said, "I was always afraid of arithmetic because of what happened in the second grade. One day I was kept after school to do some problems. The teacher had company and scolded me while they were there and I've never liked any form of mathematics since that happened."

Obviously a little patience and encouragement on the part of the teacher might have prevented mathemaphobia from crippling this student and destroying her chances of acquiring a knowledge of mathematics. As it was, she limped through arithmetic in the grades and came to the sophomore class unprepared for geometry. It was here that she was first encouraged to diagnose her own case, as a result of which the preceding story was forthcoming.

Or perhaps Susie contracted mathema-

phobia when she was in the fifth grade, like a freshman I met. Mary did fairly well with algebra until she came to fractions; then the quality (and quantity) of her work began to decline. She seemed to lose all interest. When I talked with her about this, she said, "In grade school I did pretty well in arithmetic, and liked it, until I reached fifth grade. That year I had scarlet fever and was out of school for a month. When I came back the class had been studying fractions and I was completely lost. From then on I was afraid every day when arithmetic time approached. At first I thought algebra was going to be different, but then we came to fractions and it was the same thing all over again. I can't get them."

The cure for Mary? It would have taken much patience on her teacher's part and a great deal of encouragement to show Mary that fractions may be to her an unknown quantity but that they are not necessarily unlearnable. If the teacher's busy schedule makes such help impossible, Mary may never overcome her mathematical phobia and will drop the subject from her schedule at the first opportunity. She may even manage to make passing marks in her mathematics courses, but she must nonetheless be classified as a failure.

You have all met the type. They go through life saying, "Oh, I passed algebra—or geometry—or trigonometry (whichever happens to be under discussion), but I didn't know a thing about it. The teacher just felt sorry for me." Or, if it isn't put quite so bluntly, the implication is the same. Parenthetically we might remark here, "What a poor epitaph for teacher."

Susie's story, or variations of it, would be repeated over and over, I am sure, if we should dig back into the causes of mathemaphobia. This is true to some extent of every subject in the curriculum, but because of the very nature of mathematics it is more strikingly true of this subject. In mathematics the student must, as a rule, master each successive stage of development be-

fore he can satisfactorily perform the next one.

Consider this fact in connection with the numerous children's diseases and accidents which make absences from school for several days at a time unavoidable, especially for children of the lower grades. Looking at these facts, it seems almost inevitable that every Jane and Johnny among the students will somewhere miss one of the important stages upon which at least part of the future development of the subject depends.

To be sure, there are some who do not lose out in this manner, and there are also many teachers who keep a watchful eye for just this sort of thing. But however helpful a teacher may try to be, he is seldom able to make up completely for the deficiency caused by absence, and so the successive stages of development suffer. As a result, Jane finds herself dreading algebra because she doesn't understand it, or Sam ends up scuffing the carpet in front of the principal's desk and begging to drop the horrible subject of geometry.

Sam may have shown no one the symptoms of the devastating mathemaphobia until he appeared in the principal's office with his request. His reason, if he is pressed for one, would probably sound something like this, "I just don't see any sense in geometry; I'll never use it and I just can't learn the stuff. What good will it do me anyway? I'm

EDITOR'S NOTE

Sister Mary Fides is disinclined to believe that vast numbers of secondary-school students "just can't" get along in their mathematics classes and that nothing can be done about them. She calls the condition "mathemaphobia" and says, with numerous instances, that its treatment and even cure, are easier than you may have thought. You may not have the time, she admits—but anyway here are the simple psychiatric methods. The author teaches in Spalding Academy, Spalding, Nebr.

going to be a doctor." What Sam doesn't realize and the principal cannot recognize because he doesn't have all the facts, is that the fear is behind Sam's desire to be out of the class. He may be able to get along from day to day, but examination is looming on the horizon and with it comes fear of failure.

The typical student reaction to examination (in any subject, but particularly in mathematics) was illustrated in a cartoon drawn by a freshman just before mid-term examinations. The art teacher asked the class to illustrate, in a simple line drawing, something that was, at the time, occupying an important place in the thoughts of the students. Many turned their thoughts to sports or social events but one fearful freshman entitled her drawing "Who's Scared?"

The drawing showed, through the open door of a classroom, a teacher passing out algebra examinations. Outside the door were three students, two with their hair standing on end, while the third wore a benign expression and held in her hand a card bearing the single word "Exempt." It was all in fun but nonetheless indicative.

A few days later the same class was asked to write the answer to the question, "Were you afraid of algebra examination?" There was no opportunity for discussion so the answers were spontaneous. Many said they were afraid; and, without exception, their fear was coupled with the thought of failure. Of those who were not afraid, the answer given was that they had paid attention and felt they should be able to pass.

Then there is the mathematics student who gets along fine as long as everything goes according to an expected routine. She follows the rule of practice, practice, and more practice. That's the way to learn arithmetic, or algebra, or trigonometry, and anyone who follows that rule is sure of success. In effect she says, "Teacher knows how to work algebra and if you memorize each step as he tells you to, you will know as well as he does." To be sure, this opinion is not usually expressed, but it is definitely im-

plied in numerous classroom situations.

Perhaps some of us are guilty of fostering this attitude in spite of the fact that we know how this type of mathematical construction falls down around our ears. Even if it did stand up, can you imagine anything more tiresome for both teacher and students than a class conducted on this premise? Even that practice which is necessary to bring mastery of new techniques must be given only after the student has developed a thorough understanding of these techniques. The student must find out *why* before he spends much time in learning *how*.

Walking along a road that is familiar and known to hold no dangers inspires fear in no one. The same is true of the student walking along the path of knowledge, if he does not plunge too far ahead of the known but is given sufficient opportunity to familiarize himself with each new concept as it takes the place of the old.

Possibly no other device is more effective in understanding the *why* of techniques or mathematical facts than examples. The more numerous examples are, the less chance there is that students will plunge too far ahead of the familiar and contract mathemaphobia. In this connection, it is worthwhile noting that earning, having, and spending money is a common desire among students, whether young or old. One of the simplest and most effective devices is that of giving examples wherever possible (and it is nearly always possible) in terms of money. Perhaps it is a mercenary streak—but it works.

Witness the dazed looks on the faces of a geometry class when the addition axiom is presented for the first time. It seems to have no meaning for the students, while to the teacher it is almost self-explanatory. Put it this way and watch the light dawn:

Jane and Mary each has twenty cents. Henry and Tom each has thirty-five cents. Each of the boys gives his money to one of the girls. Now Mary and Jane each has

fifty-five cents. The equals possessed by the boys, added to the equals possessed by the girls, give equal sums of fifty-five cents. If actual coins are used to illustrate the examples, they are even more effective and we have another proof of the time-worn expression, "Money talks."

When a student has sufficient understanding of axioms, postulates, theorems, and new techniques, he is able to proceed without fear with the practice which makes for real mastery. Even here, sufficient variety should be introduced to prevent routine followed by boredom.

A practice which goes a long way toward counteracting student fears is for the teacher to say in unequivocal terms, "I don't know," when such is honestly the case. It is fine for students to have confidence in the ability of teachers, but if teachers always know all the answers—and it isn't much of an accomplishment to prove to the young that teachers are pretty clever individuals—then the poor, struggling student may soon begin to reason that mathematicians are just born that way, and he will probably begin to fear that he doesn't have the magic gift.

If the teacher lets him catch a glimpse occasionally of the vast expanses of mathematical area which he or she has not explored, and shows him that one—yes, even a teacher—acquires skills little by little as a result of application and thought, perhaps then the student's fears will in some measure be dissipated.

There is, too, the fear of some specific phase of mathematics to which many students are subject. I can remember yet how frightened I was, as a high-school student, whenever I encountered a literal equation. As long as I was dealing with the more familiar numerical type, all was rosy—but as soon as a literal expression or equation was used I was beaten at the start because I was convinced I couldn't handle them. When some necessity forced me really to try them, of course I soon found they were no more difficult than numerical equations. Just get-

ting a student to try is often the biggest part of the battle.

Without doubt, every algebra teacher has heard a student say, "I can do algebra but I can't work stated problems." That old refrain seems to be the freshman theme song, contradictory though the statement is. Every time I hear a student of mine give utterance to this expression, I shudder and wonder wherein I have failed, and wherein lies the ability to show these young minds that their failure to grasp reasoning activity comes from their fear and from the conviction that it is beyond them. They must be shown that they cannot do algebra until they can work stated problems.

Frankly, I have never found the entire answer to this problem. Perhaps it is answered in part by saying one has almost to slip up behind the student and get his reasoning working by trickery and without his knowledge or consent. A series of easy reasoning questions, such as "How much is 3 less x ?" "What is four more than twice y ?" used day after day for a short period and becoming gradually more difficult, will help the student. Soon he is forming simple equations in answer to such questions as, "How would you express the fact that three less than twice a certain number is eleven?" Almost without knowing it, the student finds himself reasoning.

Then the stated problems must be kept very simple at first, and their difficulty increased gradually. Any new type of problems must be made thoroughly familiar before the student is left to work alone. Experience shows, though, that all this is not enough. The teacher must guard against becoming too complacent at this point, for there will be many backsliders who will have to be convinced not once but many times of the reasonableness of reasoning. It is hard work, but to me at least, one of the most gratifying experiences of teaching mathematics.

One other evidence of mathemaphobia is one which has been encountered by every-

one who has taught any branch of mathematics for as much as thirty minutes. I refer to the student who comes to the first class and blithely announces, "My father never could learn mathematics and I can't learn it either." The relationship may vary but the procedure never does. Having made this announcement, Johnny crosses his fingers and settles back for the duration of the semester, hoping the teacher he has drawn is a kindhearted soul and no battle-ax who is unreasonable enough to expect him to learn mathematics.

My only advice on this subject is to beat these students who are afflicted with hereditary mathemaphobia to the declaration and then proceed to show them how ridiculous it is. A few minutes spent during the first class in good-natured fun poking at this attitude is usually sufficient to offset further outbreaks. If this particular species of mathemaphobia rears its head again, the

same good-natured fun poking will dispose of it. As a rule, no student has the temerity to express such convictions after this treatment. Apparently they are cured of their inherited ailment.

In what we have said of mathemaphobia and its various manifestations, no mention has been made of the college student or those doing advanced work. Perhaps it does not seem to apply to those who have reached this level. It is found there just as often as in high school, however, when courses are required. If courses are not required, mathemaphobia claims its victim, who carefully shuns all courses dealing with mathematics.

It is for this reason that mathematics courses often are the least crowded in the college curriculum and also for this reason that the college mathematics teacher should be concerned with the causes and cure of mathemaphobia.



Teachers' Ass'n Official: Trouble Is Looking for You

Most of the teachers' associations in the United States, and there are several thousand, are like Topsy—they "jest grewed." Little effort has been put into the planning of the organization structure, in most cases, with the result that tradition or custom rules the procedure of the group. In many cases the officers, current and past, wish to keep the organization as simple as possible so that they will have a minimum of paper work. There are other reasons, such as a desire for continued personal political control of the organization, which also help keep the "simple and flexible plan" of organization in operation.

Briefly, the person who accepts an office in a teachers' association may be exposing himself to considerable legal jeopardy. It is a compliment to the teachers who make up these organizations that there has been so little trouble. The ostrich approach to the problem is not satisfactory, however. Simply saying that "I don't care about possible legal liability—it can't happen to me—" is only an attempt to say, "If I shut my eyes maybe it will go away," and to convince one's self that there are no legal problems involved.

One of the important reasons that most, if not all, teachers' associations should have written con-

stitutions is semi-legal in nature. While a number of teachers' associations do not have written constitutions and appear to function to the satisfaction of the members, it may be that such associations and their officers are in legal jeopardy for some of their acts. When an unincorporated association accumulates money, acquires or disposes of property other than money, or enters into business contracts for some purpose—renting a hotel for a convention, printing a periodical or yearbook, or any of many other possible actions—there is a possibility of legal liability. The officers who enter into such activities or contracts for the association may be held personally liable for financial obligations or for any deficit of funds, unless there is evidence that they have been authorized to undertake them in behalf of the association. . . .

Before you succumb to the lure of "Mr. President," consider the dangers involved. Perhaps action taken *now* may modernize and legalize the actions of association officers. Constitutional revision will help; establishment of the group as a non-profit corporation is not expensive and may save you considerable embarrassment.—BRUCE I. BLACKSTONE in *Phi Delta Kappan*.

FOLLOW-UP: *New Variety*

Graduates judge their school on how well it had prepared them in 7 areas of living

By RAYMOND J. YOUNG and WOODROW HOLMAN

THIS IS THE question asked by an interested high-school faculty of Idabel, Okla.: "How well is our school meeting the common needs of its boys and girls?" After considering several means of studying this question, the faculty decided to obtain the opinion of graduates for a five-year period.

Investigation revealed that many follow-up studies had been conducted, and available studies disclosed that opinions of graduates were generally obtained as to what subjects were liked or disliked, the relative degree of benefit received from various subjects, or what subjects the most benefit had been derived from.

The usual type of follow-up study was not considered to be satisfactory in ascertaining how nearly the school experience was contributing toward the satisfaction of common youth needs. Dissatisfaction also centered on focusing a follow-up study upon the narrow aspects of subjects or courses, for it was felt the curriculum encompassed much more than courses taken. Faculty concern centered around how well the school was preparing youth to adjust to life problems.

The faculty decided that for such a study they would need to have some guiding principles and a common understanding of the philosophy, objectives, and characteristics of schools promoting life-adjustment education. Available literature concerning education for life adjustment and the problems and needs of youth was obtained. A series of general faculty meetings centered around reviews of the literature given by various faculty members were held. Here teachers discussed the philosophy, objectives, and

characteristics of life-adjustment education. The faculty agreed to meet outside of school hours for every meeting held on school time, and this arrangement proved satisfactory.

Certain areas of living were identified and accepted by the faculty where the interests, needs, and problems of youth were to be found. It was agreed that those areas of living were to be citizenship, home and family life, self-realization and use of leisure time, health, purchasing goods and services, and earning a living. Once the areas of living were identified, it was thought necessary to determine what the broad common needs of boys and girls were in each area and the specific problems confronting youth within each broad common need. For this purpose, the faculty divided into groups according to teaching fields. They proceeded to formulate specific youth problems, related to their subject field for each broad common need within each area of living, which, when solved, would tend to promote adjustment in that area of living.

A steering committee selected by the faculty and representative of each division in the school received the work of each subject field committee. Members of the steering committee consolidated and analyzed the problems and eliminated unnecessary duplication and overlapping. One hundred twenty-four problems which appeared most frequently in each of the six areas of living as formulated by the subject field committees were selected and organized into questionnaire form.

To test the instrument for clarity and ease of understanding prior to actual use, it

was given to each senior then enrolled in school and sent to a selected group of graduates. A few changes and revisions were made at certain points to eliminate difficulty in interpretation of items.

Questionnaires were mailed to all graduates for a five-year period. Former students were widely scattered, and some were in Korea. Although the questionnaire was a lengthy one, a return of 214, or 68.15 per cent, was received. Not less than 60.94 per cent of the graduates in any one year responded.

Typical examples of problems included on the questionnaire under the areas of living were:

To what extent did Idabel High School aid you in solving the following problems of:

Citizenship

Acquiring the ability to conduct a meeting properly.

Rendering a fair account of one's taxable property.

Knowing how to vote intelligently.

Knowing the functions and importance of political parties in a democracy.

Understanding the work of pressure groups during a political campaign.

Home Membership

Designing, making, and repairing articles for use in the home.

Selecting, using, and conserving clothing.

Selecting a mate.

Determining an adequate insurance protection for specific families.

Health

Selecting a family doctor and acquiring the habit of visiting him regularly.

How to avoid disease and combat it.

Avoiding worry.

Acting within one's own limitations and up to one's capacity.

Maintaining good personal hygiene.

Self Realization and Worthy Use of Leisure Time

Acquiring the ability to select and enjoy good music.

Speaking more effectively and enjoyably.

Acquiring the ability to select and enjoy good motion pictures.

Purchasing Goods and Services

Budgeting income wisely.

Knowing the high cost and dangers of installment buying.

Developing the ability to perform effective personal bookkeeping.

Earning a Living

Obtaining adequate information about specific vocations.

Developing good work habits.

Getting a job and making good at it.

Each respondent indicated the amount of aid he thought he got in solving each of the 124 problems listed by indicating whether he received "great help," "much help," "some help," "very little help," "no help," or by indicating that the item "did not apply to him."

When the data were in, they were classified and tabulated by year of graduation and for the entire group for each of the problems and for each of the areas of living as a whole. For ease of interpretation, weights were assigned to each of the five categories of response.

The results of the cooperative faculty study were most revealing. It is believed that most follow-up studies are not conducted in this fashion, and our experience has indicated that even with its limitations it is a desirable approach to the evaluation of school effectiveness in meeting the common needs of youth. Some observed advantages of such a study are presented here:

1. Faculty rapport, cooperation, and morale were enhanced.

2. Teachers developed common understanding and unity of effort.

3. Objectives of the school were clarified and made realistic and functional.

4. Teachers became aware of how subject content can be used as a vehicle or means of producing changes in pupil behavior rather than as something to be taught or ground to be covered.

5. A sense of security was developed on the part of teachers because they were able to point specifically to experiences that boys

and girls are having in order to develop the desired behavior patterns.

6. Faculty members became aware of the strengths and weaknesses of school experiences in terms of assisting youth to adjust to the problems of life. For example, it is now known that although much more needs to be done in the school concerning problems identified under each area of living, particular attention should be given to problems in the area of *home membership and purchasing goods and services*.

7. Teachers came to realize that more than one subject-matter area can contribute to pupil adjustment relating to the same problems and that greater contribution can be made through some subject areas to a given problem than through others.

8. Faculty members developed a better understanding of youth and discovered the pupil as an individual.

9. Such a study assisted us to validate the hypothesis on which the school program is based.

10. It served as a basis for improvement of school experience.

11. Participation of former graduates in such a study and the information obtained had important public-relations value.

12. It served as a basis for continual group faculty study focused on the needs and problems of youth.

13. Staff competency was improved and a more realistic and functional school experience resulted for boys and girls.

Experience has indicated that a project of this type affords an excellent opportunity for a cooperative in-service education program to promote growth in teaching proficiency. Attention is focused upon an existing problem which teachers have identified and defined for study and for the purpose of developing a more effective curriculum rather than upon improvement of teacher proficiency. Teachers become acquainted with recent educational research and literature on the problem.

Teacher growth is a by-product to the

EDITOR'S NOTE

"This project has had a tremendous effect upon education in the Idabel, Okla., community," Mr. Holman writes. "It served as an opening wedge for continuous faculty study and improvement of education in Idabel High School." Dr. Young, coordinator of student teaching at Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College at Stillwater, was consultant throughout the operation. Mr. Holman is principal of the school.

focusing of attention upon pupil adjustment rather than subject matter as the center of the classroom learning experience. Since teachers formulate the philosophy, objectives, and aims of the school, they understand them, and teamwork is developed for their attainment.

Such a project serves as a pilot study which can lead to further study and curriculum revision as problems build in all directions during the study. Changes in a faculty which occur to effect a revision in the curriculum do not necessarily mean radical major reorganization and revision, although that may be the ultimate outcome. It is recommended that prior to initiating such a project, if the teachers cannot identify a problem of common concern in which they are vitally interested, the project should be begun with those who are interested. It should be made easy for others to join in as they become interested through the enthusiasm of others or view the advantages of increased services of those who participate.

Key community lay members should be invited and encouraged to participate in planning, executing, and concluding a project of this type. Such lay participation will develop an expanding circle of understanding necessary for obtaining financial and moral support to implement needed changes indicated by the results of a project of this type.

DISCIPLINE:

Great Minds & Small Minds

By EMILY HARRISON

OF ALL PERSONS in the world, surely teachers should strive for great-mindedness. Yet cases tend to show that overcriticalness and policemenmanship, two incidental behavior traits which develop in teachers with the years, all but destroy any great-mindedness with which they may have started in the profession.

Let us take a few examples.

It is spring. Puppy love is rampant, but in little wayward junior-high-school girls, it sometimes takes a peculiar form: the writing of obscene words on toilet walls, accompanied, of course, by initials and names of others for whom the writers feel jealousy or scorn.

Now when this comes to the attention of a teacher, should she attempt to find out who did the writing, so that the culprits may be thoroughly bawled out and forced to wash it away? This is a slow process, this screening in order to lay guilt. Shall she call all girls together, so that she can share with all of them her shocked indignation and feel justified in delivering a sermon on the sins of sex? Shall she ask a few womanly girls, whom she knows are just as offended as she by this writing, to help her wash it off? Or shall she write a report to the principal, telling him that the janitor is neglecting his cleaning duties?

Small minds lay blame, run indiscriminately for sympathetic ears, resolve into tirade. Great minds do that which is best for the great number who might be affected adversely by the offense. Great minds make opportunity for quiet conference and guidance to turn soiled minds into wholesome channels.

Another example is the behavior of a teacher on hall duty. Early in the year eighth-grade boys are noisy on the stairs. Should the teacher lay in wait for offenders and drag them immediately to the principal? Should he remind them forcefully at the landing below to "Walk quietly, please!" Should he watch silently, to discover who seems most noisy, and confer with these offenders at some time in the nearer future, when they are not hurrying, admonishing them at this time that others must be considered in this world and that noise is, indeed, obnoxious?

Or should he stop the worst offenders, one at a time and at different times, asking each of them about his shoe size and his growth during the summer, suggesting that the larger foot might need to be placed differently on the step to avoid scuffing the shoe and bumping the riser. Might he even allow for a bit of practice, when others are not around to deride?

The small-minded person rushes in to remedy the immediate situation, knowing full well that it will be repeated until the cause is discovered. The great-minded person searches for cause, since finding it, so often, will serve to stop the offense or cure the malady.

Again present-day children, having been indoctrinated in the four freedoms, are wont to practice them, especially the one concerning freedom of speech. Let us consider the plight of Lucy. In a classroom where exercises are put on the board by members of the class every day, Lucy has been caught casting wishful eyes on her neighbors' work. Singled out by the teacher

as an example of dishonesty, Lucy, already humiliated by her inability to work her assigned exercise, stomps her foot and cries, "You make me so darned nervous!" You can imagine the shocked silence which follows her outburst.

Should the teacher take Lucy immediately to the principal, recount Lucy's sins—past, present, and anticipated—and then leave her for the principal to handle? Shall the teacher take her quite by force to the principal, demand that the child apologize to the teacher for her impertinence and to the class also? Shall Lucy be sent back to her seat, hear it announced that her grade will be zero, and suffer being ignored for the rest of the week? Shall the girl be slapped for her impudence and forced to stand alone at the board until she has worked her exercise?

Or shall the teacher say quietly to Lucy, "Oh, I'm sorry that I make you nervous, Lucy. I didn't know that I did. I've noticed that your work has been hard for you, and now that we both know one of the reasons, I think we can help one another. Will you stop in after school? I think that I can help you understand more about this lesson."

Small minds are puffed up and expect apology for offense. Great minds are humble and forgiving, eliciting respect and love because they unconsciously give it. Great minds understand that *what is not known must be made known* before any person can be held responsible for it.

Great-mindedness is needed in teacher-teacher relationships, too. A band director has dismissed his band class on time. He has allowed ample time for putting away music and instruments. However, while putting their instruments in their hall lockers and getting out gym clothes for their next class, several girls have loitered to visit. This makes them late for gym. Punctuality is important, of course, and the gym teacher is indignant at their tardiness. Besides, she points out, they are just a bit too blasé and happy when they come in.

Physical education is just as important as any subject! The teacher sends them back to the band director to get excuses for their tardiness.

Now since the band teacher had dismissed them from band on time, he is indeed indignant. He sends them—pronto!—to the principal, who is trying to teach a shop class. Irritated at the interruption—not the first that day—the principal blasts the band students, accuses them of being too debonaire, and sends a blistering, threatening note about tardiness to be read before all classes in the school. The girls are, by this time, even later to gym class.

Now somewhere along the line, someone has been guilty of small-mindedness. Is it the gym teacher who expected punctuality? Hardly. Is it the gym teacher who sent the girls back to the band room without questioning them? Is it the gym teacher who feels her efforts are unappreciated? Is it the gym teacher who failed to recognize, as such, the light-heartedness and rapport which a good band session should create in the players? Or is it the band teacher who felt a sting of resentment at the gym teacher for the implied accusation that he had not dismissed his class on time? Is a touch of small-mindedness in both teachers who failed to get the facts before they acted? Is it in all faculty members involved for failing to think in terms of values?

Is it in the music teacher who passed the problem on to the principal instead of

EDITOR'S NOTE

In any heterogeneous secondary-school population, unpleasant situations will be created by pupils from time to time. How a teacher handles them, for good or bad, says Miss Harrison, depends on whether he has a great mind or a small one. The author shows what she means by examples drawn from the schools in which she has taught.

writing the simple truth: "These girls were dismissed from band on time." Is it in the principal who let his disgust get the better of calm consideration? Just what punishment did the gym teacher expect? What did the band teacher expect the principal to do? Who finally did it? What did it accomplish? What were they all trying to accomplish?

The small mind rarely, if ever, allows for human error, especially the kind caused by emotion. The great mind is imaginative, sensing situations and moods, making allowances. Small minds act on the impulse, especially where their own feelings have been touched off. Great minds do not retaliate for personal affront. The great-minded person keeps end-results in mind. He takes care of problems as these problems come within his jurisdiction. The great mind can discern just where individual responsibility starts, just where it needs to go.

The great mind, in true humbleness, asks to be forgiven for offense, unavoidable or unintentional, and saves blame for himself, leading others to do the same. One who aspires to great-mindedness surely sees other persons' points of view. He judges the relative importance of alternatives.

How much of the gym class activity did the girls lose by running around after excuses? How can they make it up? How much of an object lesson did their experience actually give them?

Sometimes teachers are conscientious to the point of small mindedness. A heart-breaking illustration comes to mind. A teacher who takes some pride in his lack of racial prejudice attempts to create similar spirit in his pupils. He often whispers words of encouragement to his colored pupils, complimenting them on the great patience of their race or the natural gentleness of voice or the innate sense of rhythm. When books are selected for free reading, this

teacher is zealous about including many by colored authors and about buying books about people of other races.

He teaches about great political leaders of other lands and points out diplomats who, although colored or Jewish or oriental, have shown great wisdom in their words and actions. Oh, he is generous with his praise of other races—and also with his unexpressed, but obvious, incredulity that such could possibly be true. When he reads poems in literature to his classes, he always points out the ones written by colored or foreign authors. Sometimes he even reads a poem so he *can* teach "inprejudice."

A great-minded person understands that prejudice is the result of something and that until the "something" is removed, it will remain, dormant or alive, according to the provocation. A great-minded person knows that ideas exist only by comparison and that implied analogy is a wicked and dangerous tool in the hands of an enemy. A great-minded teacher teaches children to ignore race differences by seeming unconscious of them himself in dealing with all of his charges in all situations.

A small-minded person is "satisfied in his own content." He measures everything by his own kind. He is full of incredulity at anything beyond his own mores and full of fear of being different. He is too insecure to forget differences and too self-conscious to ignore them. A small-minded person deals in generalities, mistakes causes, and is guilty of making faulty comparisons.

A great-minded person lives daily his love for mankind by making distinction on merit alone. He is unconscious of superficial differences in people as a young child is unconscious of them. He seeks the heart and the mind of the individual.

Great-mindedness in teachers? Oh, it is not easy!



Blessed is the teacher who hath good taste and common sense, for verily the profession oft is judged by the eccentricities of a few.—JOHN HAROLD in *Midland Schools*.

Shall I Supervise a STUDENT TEACHER?

By ISOBEL L. PFEIFFER

SHALL I SUPERVISE a student teacher? This question is met today by more and more teachers. Many public-school teachers are being asked to work as supervising teachers by teacher-education institutions.

Full-time, off-campus student teaching, which means the student teacher spends the entire day in some school other than a laboratory school, is the trend today. Such a program necessarily requires that more classroom teachers participate in teacher education.

What is a sensible attitude for a teacher toward student teachers? The opinions expressed by student teachers, teachers, and administrators are not only confusing but also conflicting.

One excellent teacher declares, "No student teacher for me! They're too much trouble. Besides I know what methods are effective, and my classes aren't going to be guinea pigs." Another teacher says, "A student teacher keeps me on my toes and gets me out of the rut."

A student teacher made the following observation: "I ought to be paid for this student teaching. I've worked hard, and my critic had a nice vacation." One student completing his student teaching remarked, "Well, my critic teacher is a nice fellow, but he hasn't helped me a bit!"

The feelings of a number of teachers are crystallized in this comment made by a teacher to a supervising teacher, "Well, I hear you're just skidding along now. Getting paid to let someone do your work is a good deal."

What is involved in supervising a student teacher? Is the student teacher an unmixed

blessing? Can the critic take a rest and watch the world go by? Or is work added to the already burdened teacher? As an interested supervising teacher I feel that a balance sheet needs to be drawn up to give the student teacher, critic teacher, administrators, college supervisors, and other teachers a comprehensive view of the situation from the viewpoint of the supervising teacher.

First, let's consider the credits, or advantages, of having a student teacher. The pupils have the variety offered by another personality in the classroom. A change may make school more interesting and less monotonous to the group. Also, the teacher and the class have the stimulation of new ideas, a new approach, and varied techniques. Some student teachers, of course, will have more originality and initiative than others.

In addition to the variety and stimulation in the classroom, the teacher personally has opportunities for development. While the student teacher observes, the teacher tries to do a better job, to set a better pattern for the student. The teacher analyzes his own teaching. In discussing plans and procedures with the student teacher the critic may need to explain and justify practices that he has never scrutinized before. Such verbalization requires formulating a philosophy and evaluating techniques. As a result, the teacher discards, replaces, and revises his own methods.

The teacher again gets the student viewpoint as he observes the student teacher. Nothing develops a sympathetic appreciation of students' problems as quickly as sitting in a class conducted by the student

teacher. The experience of boredom may come as a surprise to the teacher, but it certainly increases his understanding of student reactions.

Routine duties, considered by some teachers as a necessary evil of the schoolroom, are taken over by the student teacher. Being relieved of grading, filing, and record keeping is indeed pleasant. The student teacher is not exploited, but learns to do better those things he will have to do anyway as a teacher. Teaching the student teacher to perform these tasks, especially grading, is not always a simple operation. In fact, sometimes the teacher could do the job himself more quickly than he can explain and demonstrate to the student teacher what is to be done and then follow up by checking on the work.

Most student teachers can be relied on to handle routine details adequately. A trying situation develops when the student teacher is careless about these matters. The wrath of the administrator as well as of the teacher may be aroused if the student is irresponsible in checking attendance or recording grades.

Relief from detail work and the presence of the student teacher in the classroom should give the teacher some time to prepare materials, do guidance work, or take care of other school responsibilities. The amount of free time is less than the casual observer suspects, for the supervising teacher observes the teaching of the student teacher and follows up with time-consuming conferences. The transition from teacher to student-teacher responsibility in the classroom is gradual, and the timing depends on the individual student.

The opportunities for friendships are a favorable aspect of supervising student teachers. New friends include the student teacher and the supervisors from the college or university. These supervisors are also available to the teacher as consultants. Sharing problems with colleagues who have had student teachers is a wonderful opportunity

for enriching and enlarging those contacts.

This experience of acting as a critic teacher gives the individual a new perspective. He finds he is not indispensable to his classes. An appreciation of the continuous development of a good teacher is fostered as he sees areas in which he can improve himself. There is satisfaction in seeing the student teacher's growth in teaching skills. The teacher-education program takes on a new meaning, and the critic teacher performs a professional service as a beginner in the classroom is guided toward better teaching.

Now let's view the debit column through the eyes of the supervising teacher. The teacher has the responsibility for providing learning experiences for his classes and for the student teacher. Therefore when he has a student teacher, he plans activities for the classes and also for the student teacher. This dual planning should eventually reach the stage where the student teacher plans the class activities. Then, of course, the critic must check those procedures, and he usually discusses the plans with the student teacher. These conferences for planning and evaluating the work of the student teacher are a time-consuming aspect of the program.

Planning and providing a variety of experiences for the student teacher are a burden. He should use audio-visual equipment, projects, group work, discussions, inductive teaching, tests, and other methods. In case the tape recorder is to be used, for example, the teacher follows the routine for borrowing the recorder and then arranges to teach the student teacher to use the equipment. As a new method is used, the teacher works with the student teacher to promote effective teaching in that specific situation.

Meeting other teachers, participating in extracurricular activities, and assuming community responsibilities are valuable experiences for the student teacher, but planning such experiences becomes complicated indeed. Since the critic cannot adequately

cover all aspects of subject matter, methods, professional ethics, and school-community relations, the selection of basic elements to meet the needs of each individual student teacher is necessary but difficult.

The classes may be offered fewer educational opportunities by a student teacher who may be unfamiliar with the subject matter, unable to adapt his vocabulary to the students' level, and inexperienced in suggesting applications and illustrations. In literature, for instance, the student teacher may not open vistas or provide glimpses of the depths as an experienced teacher could. In skill subjects such as shorthand and typing the student teacher, as he develops his own methods and procedures of instruction, may proceed more slowly and do a less thorough job.

In this area a paradox exists. How can a student become a good teacher without practice and guidance? How can his growth as a teacher be accomplished without experimentation with techniques? Yet he must practice and experiment on boys and girls who would probably achieve more under the direction of an experienced teacher. Nevertheless the most effective way of promoting growth of a student teacher is in the classroom under the supervision of an interested, experienced teacher.

The emotional strain for the supervising teacher is a factor which cannot be ignored. It takes much self control to sit quietly and watch a student teacher who may stumble along when the teacher could do the job better and more quickly. Probably the supervising teacher is especially critical because he is inactively observing and concentrates on finding ways of improving the learning situation. The teacher recognizes the conflict of his responsibilities; he wants the class and the student teacher to have educational opportunities. At times the two objectives seem incompatible, and the teacher feels frustrated. Then the student's teaching must be analyzed objectively so that he may be helped to overcome his

EDITOR'S NOTE

The trend, says Mrs. Pfeiffer, is toward a growth and spreading of the system of full-time, off-campus student teaching. And so more and more teachers on the job will be facing the question of whether they want to take a student teacher into their classrooms. There are advantages and disadvantages to having a student teacher to work with. Mrs. Pfeiffer points them out, to encourage you to think about the matter. She teaches Latin at East Lansing High School, East Lansing, Mich.

weaknesses. Always the teacher runs the risk of discouraging the student teacher. A delicate balance must be maintained between praise and constructive criticism.

Another point of concern for the teacher is classroom relations. The danger of undermining the attitudes built up in the group is balanced by the possibility of developing better responses. But the teacher must realize that a student teacher will change the attitudes of the students for better or worse. The teacher may become quite discouraged when some types of behavior he has emphasized are ignored by a student teacher.

Perhaps the class has decided that different views on a question should be expressed but the discussion should end whenever personal bickering develops. One incident in violation of the class policy may result in antagonisms that are very hard to overcome. The timid girl whom the teacher finally has encouraged to participate in class may draw into her shell if the student teacher speaks sharply. The possibility of having his work undone is a disturbing element for the critic teacher.

The teacher may be divorced from his students by the student teacher. This particular idea may seem to be the pride of the teacher rearing its head. But the teacher's focus of attention becomes the student teacher. Instead of working directly with the students then, the teacher works

through the student teacher. The students are benefited as the teacher helps the student teacher improve. The teacher who enjoys friendly informal contacts with the students at school may find that the student teacher needs the time and attention which ordinarily would be spent with pupils.

Now, after an examination of the debits and credits, what is a sensible attitude for a teacher toward supervising student teaching? Acting as a supervising teacher is hard work, and it is time consuming. The monetary compensation made by teacher-educating institutions varies considerably, but it is not adequate for the time and effort involved. Working with a good student teacher is a joy; the pleasures far outweigh the small inconveniences. However, a poor student teacher is a trial, and the disadvantages seem overwhelming.

There is a clearly indicated trend toward full-time, off-campus student teaching. Consequently more teachers will become a part

of the teacher-education program. Not only teachers in laboratory schools and college towns but also teachers in other schools will be acting as supervising teachers. Each teacher must interpret for himself the pros and cons of having student teachers, but the importance of professional service must be emphasized.

Teachers, as members of a profession, recognize the need for more good teachers. The effect of a good teacher is far reaching, but the achievement of a good supervising teacher is greater. We must realize that the influence of a supervising teacher goes beyond his own classroom to enrich the experiences of hundreds of boys and girls taught by these new teachers. As teachers who think we are doing an important job, we must be willing to contribute to the improvement of the profession. The public-school people of a state must participate in teacher education for the benefit of the boys and girls who need better teachers.



Courtesy Committee Sends Cards, Gifts, Flowers

By BETTYE TUCKER

The Hattiesburg, Miss., High School Courtesy Committee was formed in 1948. Since that time it has been active in extending courtesy to students who are sick, and sympathy in case of death in the family of any student.

A representative to the committee is elected from each English class during the first term of school.

Cards, costing not more than fifteen cents, are sent to students who are sick at home for more than three days. Students who are ill over an extended period of time are sent flowers or a gift, costing not more than three dollars. Baskets of fruit, pillow cor-sages, books, and magazines are among the

types of gifts sent. Some students have received a surprise package each day, with a verse accompanying each one.

Sympathy cards are sent to students and faculty members upon the death of some member of the family other than mother, father, or guardian. Flowers, not exceeding four dollars in cost, are sent in case of death in the immediate family of a pupil in the school.

Hattiesburg High students are extremely proud of this system, which extends the same courtesy and attention to all. They are glad to contribute twenty-five cents each year to the fund which enables the Courtesy Committee to do its work.

HIGH HEELS and TIES:

Senior Day Goes Adult

By LOUISE EDNA GOEDEN

IT'S "High Heel and Tie Day" once a semester at Washington High School, Milwaukee, Wis. A day specially set aside for graduating seniors, it gives them the chance to show how they will look and act when they step out into the adult world of business or college.

Although the regular routine continues, senior boys and girls come to school wearing their best "bib and tucker." Naturally much planning and discussion among friends precedes the event (scheduled for two weeks before graduation). Girls wear smart suits which would be suitable in any business position, or dresses appropriate for afternoon social parties such as teas. Of course, "heels" are required! Boys come in business suits. They usually wear white shirts and—again of course—ties.

Dressed in this way, the seniors present a picture of maturity and poise which apparently impresses even them; for their actions during the day are completely adult.

EDITOR'S NOTE

Formerly "Senior-Freshie Day" was an occasion for which the graduating seniors of Washington High School, Milwaukee, Wis., came to school attired as babies, tramps, and hill-billies—and their conduct provided answers to that old question, "How silly can you get?" Fortunately for the faculty, that event has been transformed into its opposite: "High-Heel and Tie Day" is an event for which the seniors come arrayed in their Sunday-go-to-meetin' clothes and act with whatever adult savoir-faire they can muster for the occasion.

Older teachers at Washington High can compare this modern "Heel and Tie" day with what it has replaced—a "Senior-Freshie" day. Most schools have something of this latter type, where seniors revert to what was originally thought of as their first day at high school. Actually, those "dress-down" days often degenerate into attempts to wear the funniest or roughest costumes; and they are inevitably accompanied with equally uninhibited conduct and language.

The day is only for graduating seniors—a prerogative they guard as jealously as their sole right to run the semester Prom.

Social activities are growing up with the day. Often the graduates bring cakes or boxes of candy or special sandwiches and organize a table in the cafeteria for their regular lunch hour.

The home-economics department emphasizes the occasion by planning and giving a tea for the graduating girls. Here all have a chance to exhibit their poise and social graces—and see the dresses of those girls they didn't happen to meet during the day. Over 100 students attended the tea held this past semester.

Whenever possible, the Girls' Club also holds its semester Honor Day on "High Heel" day. At this time high-ranking scholars receive recognition. The special clothes the graduates wear give an extra fillip to the occasion.

Cameras are naturally much in evidence. Everyone wants a picture of himself and his classmates in the dress-up mood. In fact, even the local papers are interested in it. Both the big dailies have sent photographers to cover the event.

A 36-state study:

Is the Junior High School STILL GROWING?

By
FRANCIS J. CAVANAGH

THE GROWTH of the junior high school in this country has been the subject of much speculation during the past few years and especially since the end of World War II.

We prepared a short questionnaire which we sent to the forty-eight state commissioners, or superintendents, of education and to the superintendent of schools of Washington, D. C. We received thirty-six replies. The following is a summary of the answers to certain of the questions asked:

- I. (a) How many junior high schools were there in your state five years ago?

Answer: 2181

- (b) How many junior high schools are there in your state today?

Answer: 2355

Note: this is a total increase of 174 (7.9%).

- II. Have there been cases where communities have changed from the elementary school-junior high school-senior high

school system to the elementary school-grammar school-high school system?

Answer: Yes, 13 (46%)

No, 15 (54%)

Total number of communities making this shift: 34

- III. Have there been cases where communities have changed from the elementary school-grammar school-high school system to the elementary school-junior high school-senior high school system in your state?

Answer: Yes, 19 (73%)

No, 7 (27%)

Total number of communities making this shift: 165

- IV. For what enrolment are most of your new junior high schools planned?

Answer:

200-500 pupils .. 19 (59%)

501-800 pupils .. 8 (25%)

801-1100 pupils .. 4 (13%)

1101-1400 pupils .. 0

1400 or more pupils 1 (3%)

- V. What size do you consider educationally desirable for a junior high school?

Answer:

200-500 pupils .. 12 (36%)

501-800 pupils .. 19 (58%)

801-1100 pupils .. 2 (6%)

1100-1400 pupils .. 0

1401 or more pupils 0

EDITOR'S NOTE

For some years there have been conflicting opinions on whether the junior-high-school movement is slipping or going ahead, says Mr. Cavanagh, principal of Saxonville Junior High School, Framingham, Mass. He queried the state departments of education for the facts on this point and others concerning the status of junior high schools, and now offers the results of his investigation.

It is interesting to note that many replies gave a clear indication that plans are now being made for new junior high schools.

Events & Opinion

Edited by THE STAFF

MEASUREMENT FELLOWSHIPS: The two winners of the 5th annual American Educational Research Association fellowships in educational measurement are now following their one-year fellowship programs at Teachers College, Columbia University, announces William C. Ferguson, president of World Book Co., Yonkers, N.Y.

The AERA fellowship grants, financed by World Book Co., offer \$2,000 each, to be used for one year's pre- or post-doctoral study in the field of educational measurement. They also provide an opportunity for practical research and test construction work in the Division of Test Research and Service at World Book Co., and with other test research groups in New York. For this reason, fellowship winners are expected to pursue their graduate work in the New York metropolitan area. Usually one fellowship a year is granted, Mr. Ferguson said, but because of the exceptional qualifications of two applicants for the 1953-54 award, both were given fellowships.

Applications for the 1954-55 fellowship must be made by March 1, 1954. To qualify, applicants must be citizens of the U.S. or Canada who plan a professional career in educational measurement. They should have completed at least one year of graduate work in this or a related field at a recognized institution. Information and application blanks may be obtained from World Book Co., Yonkers, N.Y., or from the American Educational Research Association, 1201 Sixteenth St. NW, Washington 6, D.C.

THE DELINQUENCY FRONT: The juvenile delinquents we have always with us. The "authorities" tell us that delinquency is down 3% this year, or up 12% that year, but the figures always sound a little unreal to this reporter. One man's delinquent is another man's son. Here's what happened on 3 sectors of the delinquency front on a couple of recent days:

1,000 Terrorists: Almost 1,000 teenagers were arrested in Philadelphia, Pa., when police cracked down on gangs that had been terrorizing the city for several weeks, reports the Associated Press. The drive followed numerous complaints of beatings, hold-ups, and robberies by gangs of adolescents. A special detail of 90 policemen confiscated a quantity of guns, switch-blade knives, and assorted implements of mayhem.

Free Enterprise: A brisk business in the sale of blank birth certificates of Arkansas to Westfield,

N.J., high-school students, says a news item in the New York Times, was uncovered by local police. The students bought the blanks for 25 cents to \$1 each and prepared the certificates to show that they were 21 or more years old, so that they could buy wine, beer, and liquor. A 16-year-old Westfield student had filched a whole pad of the blanks during a recent visit to Arkansas, and had set himself up in business. Police were led to the young salesman after finding 6 juveniles drinking in a car that contained 2 bottles of wine and 2 cases of beer, and discovering one of the faked certificates on one of the boys.

Mayor Attacks Seat of Problem: The mayor of Knoxville, Tenn., has asked city councilmen to repeal a 40-year-old city ordinance forbidding school teachers and principals to whip pupils. He said that the ordinance violates the "vested rights of school officials," oversteps authority, and hinders efforts to cope with juvenile delinquency.

THE TELEVISION REPORT: After viewing, with the help of a staff, 651 hours and 44 minutes of television programs broadcast during the sample week of January 4 through 10, 1953—the entire production of programs for the week by the 7 New York City video outlets, Dr. Dallas W. Smythe, research professor at the University of Illinois, has just made his annual report on the state of television. The facts, as given by Jack Gould in the New York Times, seem to be as follows:

Drama programs, which "include everything from soap opera to Western pictures," are now the most plentiful, amounting to 17% of all TV broadcast time. Variety shows are second with 12%, followed by quiz programs and contests (5%) and sports (also 5%).

Dr. Smythe conducts his annual study in behalf of the National Association of Educational Broadcasters, so "keeps a special eye open for the volume of crime stuff in TV programming." During the sample week there were 3,421 acts or threats of violence on New York television, which works out to almost 500 a day. And the quantity of this violence is twice as great during the hours when the most children are looking at TV, as compared with the other hours of the day.

Just to end this distressing report upon a note of optimism: "Teachers were typically shown as the cleanest, kindest, and fairest of the professional groups."

UN CONTEST: Free trips to Europe and Mexico, as well as cash and scholarship awards, will be granted to winners of the Annual High School Contest on the United Nations, to be held on March 25, 1954, under the sponsorship of the American Association for the United Nations. The objective of both the Contest and the AAUN is to educate the American people to a better understanding of the work of the UN.

All high-school students in public, private, and parochial schools in the United States or its territories are eligible to compete in the March 25 examinations. First national prize is a trip to Europe or \$500 cash, and the second prize is a trip to Mexico or \$200. Students placing among the top 16 contestants in the country will be eligible for scholarships offered by Carleton College, Northfield, Minn., and Occidental College, Los Angeles, Cal. In addition, prizes totalling more than \$3,000 in cash and including several college scholarships will be awarded by various community organizations to local and state winners throughout the U. S. In 1953, some 2,882 high schools and an estimated 100,000 students took part in the contest.

Study material for the contest is provided by the AAUN, which recommends that principals and teachers register early for their students so that the material can be sent to them. One kit is given free of charge to each registered school, and additional kits for student entrants are available at 50 cents each. The American Association for the United Nations is at 345 East 46th St., New York 17, N. Y.

SUMMER PROGRAM: During the past summer, 125,000 of Florida's 500,000 public-school children participated in the State's Public School Summer Enrichment Program, says Zollie Maynard in *Journal of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation*. Physical-education teachers have been responsible for providing the leadership and "know-how" for the 5-year-old program.

In Florida, schools are allowed to use school funds to employ about one-eighth of the teachers for Program work with pupils during the summer. In one county, where almost half of the public-school children participated in the Program, costs per pupil for the summer were \$3.33, or 11 cents per child per day. Those costs, says Mr. Maynard, are indicative of the cost throughout the State.

The most successful activities in the program are athletics, arts and crafts, camping (day camping and organized-group camping), dramatics, excursions (including picnics, swimming, visits to historical places), homemaking, library services (story hour, record concerts, etc.), music, parties, and special events such as tournaments, field days, pet shows,

talent nights, etc. Mr. Maynard says that Florida educators are beginning to wonder whether the present plan may grow into a regular 12-month school program for the State.

OUT OF THIS WORLD: The 580 students of Summit, N. J., Junior High School are no longer—at least officially—"future citizens of the world," reports Nancy Seely in the *New York Post*. At the insistence of the local Veterans of Foreign Wars post, Miss Seely says, the phrase has been deleted from the school pledge.

In use by students over the past 15 years, the school pledge said: "I, a student of Summit Junior High School and a future citizen of the world, promise to obey and uphold the laws of my country and school. Therefore, I must be loyal, courteous, and trustworthy and work for the health, success, and happiness of all people."

The VFW notified Robert E. Woodward, principal of the school, that it felt the phrase implied subordination of U. S. citizenship to world citizenship, and that it was un-American. The PTA, approached by the VFW, had refused to act on the matter. The principal said that he was "perfectly satisfied with the pledge as it was," since it was always used in connection with the Pledge of Allegiance to the American Flag. He also pointed out to the VFW that President Eisenhower had just used the phrase, "citizens of the world," in a speech at a Boston celebration of the Republican Party. But the VFW post's reply was that the President's speech was just a political gesture, whereas it is the VFW's business to keep an eye on what goes on in the schools, and they didn't like the school's pledge.

The principal put the matter up to a student-faculty committee, which agreed with him that the simplest thing was to delete the phrase from the pledge. The *New York Post* commented editorially that, hereafter, "let no Summit student mistake himself for a member of the brotherhood of man."

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The inability [of college students] to spell correctly is not conclusive proof of illiteracy—it may be a gift. When I find "co-insodent" or "abcessed with the idea" in a final examination paper; or read in a theme that "Feudilism was in mid-evil times, an attempt to fill a vacume," I am more pleased than alarmed at these ingenuities in error. (It is reported from a sister institution that a student wrote about the "Pullet's Surprise," but this is too good to be true.)—L. N. MORGAN in *The Oklahoma Teacher*.



Book Reviews



ROBERT G. FISK and EARL R. GABLER, *Review Editors*

Learning to Read, by HOMER L. J. CARTER and DOROTHY J. MCGINNIS. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1953. 214 pages, \$3.50.

Primarily a handbook for teachers, *Learning to Read* is based on the assumption that "the fundamental principles underlying learning and consequently instruction are essentially the same at all ages."

The book consists of three parts. In the first three chapters of Part I, "Some Reading Problems and Why They Develop," physical factors (vision, audition, kinesthetic and tactual imagery, dominance, and endocrine dysfunction) which affect reading performance are discussed. Next, psychological factors (mental, emotional, and social maturity, emotional stability and personality) are considered. Noted too are environmental factors, such as home and educational background, which affect an individual's reading performance. The last chapter in Part I, "Determining the Causes of Reading Disability in an Individual Case," includes descriptions

of, and suggestions for use of, measures of intelligence and mental maturity, tests of vision, tests of audition, aptitude or survey tests in reading, measures of reading ability and skill for analysis of reading errors, personality measures, and projective techniques.

Part II is entitled "Reading Objectives and Materials for Their Achievement." Teachers and principals planning and administering a reading program will find especially valuable the lists of supplementary materials for developmental and corrective reading. Reading selections with grade and interest levels indicated by the publishers of the materials outlined, and determined by criteria generally the same as those set forth in the *Children's Catalog*, are classified as follows:

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cific reading errors. (5) Materials which may prove helpful in stimulating an interest in reading activities. (6) Materials which may be of value in increasing comprehension and rate of reading. (7) Materials which may prove helpful in developing work-study habits. (8) Materials which have been classified according to various grade and interest levels. (9) Materials reported to be of interest to retarded readers. (10) Materials which can be used in choric or group speaking.

The authors have included a glossary, which purposes to make unfamiliar terms intelligible to the teacher. Also they have listed 65 references, which will help in obtaining much additional information on all phases of reading.

Those teachers searching for a book "designed to provide definite, specific, and practical suggestions for the improvement of reading at all levels" will find *Learning to Read* a very usable handbook.

EDNA LUE FURNESS
University of Wyoming
Laramie, Wyo.

Selected Science Teaching Ideas of 1952, ed. by R. WILL BURNETT. Washington, D.C.: National Science Teachers Association, 1953. 58 pages, paper bound, \$1.50.

Since this book is a selection of the most practical ideas, practices, and techniques selected from the

reports of science teachers submitted for an achievement award in a national contest, the descriptions of innumerable student activities prove to be one of the richest sources of stimulating ideas about the teaching of science to be found anywhere.

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N. E. BINGHAM
Professor of Education
University of Florida
Gainesville, Fla.

Algebra for Problem Solving, Book 2, by JULIUS FREILICH, SIMON L. BERMAN, and ELSIE PARKER JOHNSON. New York: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1953. 511 pages, \$3.20.

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The title, *Algebra for Problem Solving*, could be a bit misleading. This is not a book of problems alone. The authors seem to feel that algebra is not merely manipulation, but rather, that algebra should be meaningful, usable, and capable of being applied in solving problems. Hence, they aim for clarity and understanding of processes, to terminate in application to a good supply of well-selected problems. Note the heading: "Apply Your Understanding—Problems."

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ANDREW F. CRAFTS
Scarsdale High School
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An Introduction to Public-School Relations (rev. ed.), by WARD G. REEDER. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1953. 284 pages, \$3.75.

In less than 300 pages Reeder adequately presents the importance and characteristics of an efficient school public-relations program and the means of

conducting such a program. Reams have been written on public relations but this revised edition of the book, first printed in 1937, will emerge as one of the "stand-bys."

Two of the major threads running through the book are: First, public relations are the responsibility of everyone interested in education, and second, the public consists of the entire community, which may often be divided into many separate groups. These major concepts greatly influence the ideas presented, including the philosophy and principles of public relations.

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The Young Travelers will be welcome in any junior-high-school library. The series, twenty-four in number, was recently published in England. It is being edited for young Americans by Frances Clarke Sayers, former superintendent of Work with Children, the New York Public Library—a recommendation in itself.

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American Problems Today, by ROBERT RIENOW. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1953. 704 pages, \$4.

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. . . it is most unfortunate that the large majority of professional education courses seem to offer little to improve personality. Few of the textbooks for these courses, although replete with suggestions for building units or maintaining discipline, give sufficient attention to this central force in human relations.—*Richard E. Gross*, p. 287.

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Opinionnaires Canvass Parents, Pupils, Teachers	<i>R. P. Brimm</i>	269
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The Future of Language Arts: Social Emphasis	<i>Edna Lue Furness</i>	277
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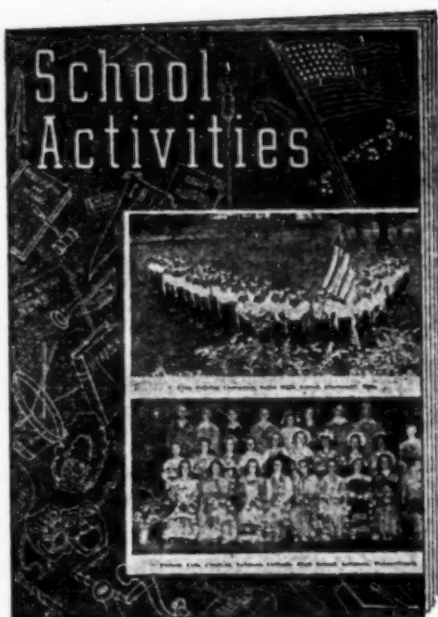
In most of the high schools of California, an English or a social-science teacher, when he is being hired, is asked whether he can coach the senior play. Perhaps he has been in a play, and perhaps he has not; but rather than lose the chance for the job, he accepts the responsibility. Then he is asked to take over another play, and finally some speech contests, and then perhaps a drama class.

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PUBLIC EDUCATION: *Design of American Public Education*, 16 min., sound, B&W, \$80, issued by Text-Film Dept., McGraw-Hill Book Co., 330 W. 42 Street, New York 18, N. Y. This film deals with organizational structure of American public education, first as it might be if it were an assembly-line educational process controlled centrally, and, second, as it actually is in a democratic society, with constitutional delegation of education to the various states—a system that develops responsible citizens in a democratic society. (HS, Coll., Adult)

UNITED NATIONS: *Of Human Rights*, 21 min., sound, B&W, rental \$4, sale \$65, issued by Dept. of Public Information, United Nations, New York, N. Y. An incident involving economic and racial prejudice among children is used to dramatize the importance of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. (Jr.H., HS, Adult)

— ❧ —
EDITOR'S NOTE: Mr. Eckhauser is a member of the faculty of Washington Junior High School, Mt. Vernon, N. Y. He invites readers to send reports of 50 to 75 words on their experiences in classroom use of a particular film or recording.

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